University of Massachusetts Amherst
ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst

Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014

1-1-1975

The administration of the ANISA model : the release of a collective potential.

Penelope Graham Walker
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

Recommended Citation
Walker, Penelope Graham, "The administration of the ANISA model : the release of a collective potential." (1975). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 3022.
https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/3022

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

UMASS/AMHERST
312066013584123

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE ANISA MODEL
THE RELEASE OF A COLLECTIVE POTENTIAL

A Dissertation Presented

By

PENELOPE GRAHAM WALKER

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

March 1975

(c) Penelope Graham Walker 1975
All Rights Reserved

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE ANISA MODEL
THE RELEASE OF A COLLECTIVE POTENTIAL

A Dissertation

By

PENELOPE GRAHAM WALKER

Approved as to style and content by:

Daniel C. Jordan, Chairman of Committee

Donald T. Streets, Member

Frederic Finch, Member

Kenneth Blanchard, Dean's Representative

Louis Fischer, Acting Dean
School of Education

March 1975

PREFACE

The construction of a theoretical model for ANISA administration involves the creation of an ideal. It is grounded in relevant philosophy and research, but its primary thrust is toward ultimate goals rather than current practice. It is a venture that will be extended by ANISA scholars who will be concerned with studying more fully the means for the gradual implementation of this ideal.

This effort at conceptualizing a model of administration consistent with the theories and aims of ANISA has been a challenging and stimulating task. It was guided and enriched by the valuable assistance of my committee members Daniel Jordan, Donald Streets, Frederic Finch, and Kenneth Blanchard and to them I extend my appreciation. I should also like to express my gratitude to Susan Theroux for her helpful comments and, most particularly, to my husband, David, for his constant support and patient review of this work.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE ANISA MODEL

THE RELEASE OF A COLLECTIVE POTENTIAL (March 1975)

Penelope Graham Walker, A.B., Vassar College

M.A., Harvard University

Directed by: Dr. Daniel C. Jordan

The purpose of this dissertation is to lay the theoretical foundation for the administrative structure that would guide the implementation of the ANISA education model. This work does not represent an analysis of the operation of an ANISA school, nor is it a manual of office procedures or job descriptions for the would-be administrator. What is set forth is an initial treatment of the relevant principles that are involved. The material presented here will call for further interpretation and for that reason this effort is no more than the first step in a large task. Moreover, the theory will have to be tested through experience and refined through further research. Preliminary as this effort is, it comes none too soon, as the ANISA Model is already being implemented in selected locations.

Since the purpose of the dissertation is to formulate a theory of administration for a clearly defined model of education, the theory necessarily has to be compatible with the philosophy and aims of that particular model. The conceptual scheme for ANISA administration is grounded in ANISA's view of the nature of man and in its theory of human development. Therefore, the

ANISA theory of administration can only be understood in relation to the educational model itself. The first chapter of the dissertation provides this necessary overview of the ANISA Model, highlighting its theories of development, curriculum, and teaching. The writer accepted these premises as the basis upon which the theory of administration would be developed.

Chapter two of the dissertation reviews the contributions of key thinkers and movements in administrative thought, which give a foundation for any venture in theory-building. It is important to understand the concepts and areas of analysis in the field, which will be referred to in subsequent sections, and to recognize the threads which this theory draws together.

The third chapter sets forth the main elements of a theory of administration which is consistent with the philosophy and objectives of the ANISA Model. Group problem-solving is identified as the principal method for releasing a collective potential--a primary aim of ANISA administration. Chapter four is devoted entirely to an exploration of this chief feature of the administrative theory, through a presentation of philosophical and empirical material which validates the efficacy of the group problem-solving approach. This chapter also discusses the context and mechanics involved in employing this method of administration.

The final chapter of the dissertation considers in a tentative fashion the organizational structure and staff relationships that might exist in an ANISA school in order for the basic theory to be applied.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

THE ANISA MODEL OF EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

It has been said that the only constant in our modern world is change. The rapid roll-up that is taking place in society's institutions and traditions has created a disorientation for most people which has come to be called "future shock." How can man cope with the ever-shifting demands his environment places upon him? And how can his tremendous potential be harnassed for constructive solutions to the problems of a global society?

The reports of both social and natural scientists suggest that far-reaching changes will have to take place in our society in order for mankind to survive. At the foundation of this restructuring is the need for the radical transformation of our system of education. The concept of maximizing the potentialities of all people, rich or poor, black or white, is no longer merely a cherished ideal but a lifesaving requirement.

Coupled with a necessity to ensure the healthy development and release of the potentialities of each individual is the need for an approach to organizational life that can meet the challenges of the tasks ahead. Complex organizations are the mark of the modern era. They have an organic life of their own. Organizations need to be guided so that, like individuals, they are effective, they fulfill their purposes, and they serve mankind.

A redirection of the educational process ultimately must rest on a fuller understanding of the creature we seek to educate--man. It must draw together

all available scientific research on how man learns and progresses and must formulate a comprehensive theory of his development. To do anything less is to repeat the haphazard, unscientific educational efforts of the past.

The ANISA program, as represented by the ANISA Model of education, has already charted itself on this course.[1] Its aim is to create a comprehensive educational system that is unique in its power to release human potential. ANISA is developing a new basis for educational planning, one capable of adapting to the ever-increasing demands and pressures of our world. The Model provides a conceptual framework that integrates large bodies of knowledge and research in education and human development. ANISA has formulated a philosophical base from which it has derived a theory of development, a theory of curriculum, and a theory of teaching.

Any model that seeks to create a new educational system, whether it is implemented in one school or in an entire country, has to be equally concerned with a theory of administration. The study of group behavior and organizational development are important disciplines within psychology and sociology. Research and experience in these areas must be incorporated into the ANISA framework so that the full potential of the organization can be realized. Without a

---

[1]The word ANISA refers to an ancient symbol meaning the "tree of life." It represents the concept of continuous growth and fruition in the context of shelter and protection. It is also an acronym for the American National Institute for Social Advancement.

comprehensive theory and model of administration consistent with its philosophical base, ANISA cannot hope to escape ineffectiveness in its operation, dissatisfaction among its personnel, and eventually a frustration of organizational objectives. And with the formulation of a compatible theory of administration, ANISA not only promises to contribute to the advancement of the individual life of man but to his collective life as well.

ANISA'S CONCEPT OF THE NATURE OF MAN

The cornerstone in the ANISA philosophy is its affirmation of the spiritual nature of man. ANISA holds to Julian Huxley's view that man is the only "repository of cosmic self-awareness."[2] Through this faculty of human consciousness he is clearly more than an animal. He is the only creature who can take an active part in the shaping of his own destiny. This is a function of his two fundamental capacities--immanence and transcendence. Immanence refers to his accumulated experience and transcendence to his creative vision of the future that he brings to bear on the present. It is man's nature to be within the world and yet to transcend it. Moreover, man is in possession of illimitable potentialities and is able constantly to move beyond himself. As Whitehead termed it, he is able to make "creative advance into novelty."[3]

---

[2]Quoted in Michael F. Kalinowski and Daniel C. Jordan, "Being and Becoming," World Order, 7, No. 3(Summer, 1973), 17.

[3]Alfred N. Whitehead, Process and Reality:An Essay in Cosmology (New York: Macmillan, 1969), p. 41.

This capacity of transcendence has been relatively ignored in approaches to man's development and education.

It may seem presumptious to deal with such broad and fundamental questions as the nature of man, but it is precisely because modern education lacks an adequate definition of man that so many of its efforts are ill-conceived. ANISA's premises about the spiritual, transcendent nature of man derive from the organismic view of the universe, which shifted much of scientific thought away from earlier mechanistic notions. Its view is essentially spiritual in that it shows how man is influenced by a sense of purpose and that the ideals he constructs are a lure to his development.[4] This underlying assumption of the Model is a unifying principle around which scientific data and factual knowledge can be organized and interpreted.

THE ANISA APPROACH TO HOW MAN LEARNS

The view of man with a spiritual nature and unlimited potentialities is at the heart of ANISA's philosophy. Its theory of development explains how potentiality is translated into actuality through an individual's interactions

---

[4]Whitehead elaborates this point in Modes of Thought(New York: Free Press, 1968), p. 166. "If we stress the role of the conceptual anticipation of the future whose existence is a necessity in the nature of the present, this process is the teleological aim at some ideal in the future. This aim, however, is not really beyond the present process, for the aim at the future is an enjoyment in the present. It thus effectively conditions the immediate self-creation of the new creature."

with his environment. The theory identifies learning competence as the key factor in releasing human potentialities.

The ANISA literature states that any child "who can be assisted in becoming a competent learner will have been given the main tool for negotiating his destiny, regardless of the difficulties or circumstances he may face."[5] Learning competence means learning how to learn. It is a power that enables an individual to handle any situation he may encounter in life and to move on from there. This focus of the Model presupposes that certain conclusions about the process of learning have been reached by ANISA and are at the basis of its theory.

The study of learning has preoccupied much of psychological research over the last fifty years. Unfortunately most of the research has been carried out in laboratory settings rather than in classrooms and teachers have consequently found it difficult to apply the findings to real situations. It is precisely this critical interface between empirically based theory and classroom practice which ANISA is trying to achieve.

To a great extent the study of the learning process has been dominated by stimulus-response theorists. Growing out of the mechanistic view of man and the universe that was prevalent in the physical sciences in the nineteenth century, stimulus-response theory maintains that learning is the modification of behavior which comes about through external influences. Learning is

---

[5]Daniel C. Jordan and Donald T. Streets, "The ANISA Model: A New Educational System for the Development of Human Potential," World Order, 6, No. 3 (Spring, 1972), 24.

essentially the construction of stimulus-response associations. A particular stimulus elicits a certain response. After repetition and reinforcement the behavioral response is associated with the stimulus. The resultant modification of behavior represents learning. The individual is viewed as relatively passive in his selection and regulation of mental processes. The motivation for all behavior is dependent on extrinsic factors. Words such as purpose, intention, thinking, and consciousness have no place in the stimulus-response view because the focus is on observable behavior, which is always regarded as a result of the environment's action on the individual.

Though stimulus-response theory is too limited to provide the sole basis for developing an educational model, the principles of human learning it has verified must nevertheless be taken into consideration. Therefore, the findings of this school have been incorporated into ANISA's research base.

More recently some biologists and physical scientists have adopted an "organismic" view of man and the universe. They view man and his universe as systems having properties and functions determined not only by the nature of their individual parts but by the character of the whole which they compose and by the relations of the parts to the whole. The scientists see the nature of these life systems as a hierarchy of processes rather than static matter. In order to account for the mystery of life and the phenomenon of human consciousness, scientists postulate that "while organisms are one with nature

in being composed of matter, there is 'something more' which is yet not disjunctive with matter."[6] Because of that 'something more' man is not a passive participant in life being controlled by successive stimuli of hot or cold, pleasure or pain, etc.

As mentioned, the ANISA philosophy is drawn from these organismic premises and in the context of learning this means a focus on "process" rather than "product." The individual is viewed as active in the selection and regulation of his mental processes. Learning in human beings includes the mastery of certain central processes, usually termed operations. This approach to learning underlies the work of cognitive theorists Jean Piaget and Jerome Bruner. Their contributions to learning theory are directly relevant to the ANISA approach.

In order to formulate a comprehensive theory of development, based on a solid, scientific foundation, ANISA reviewed all the research on learning theory. Common to all theories of learning, be they mechanistic or organismic, were found to be the capacities of differentiation, integration, and generalization.

> Differentiation is the ability to break down experience, whether internal or external, into separate contrastable elements. Integration is the ability to combine those elements in a new way thereby providing new information, new feelings, new skills and new perceptions which may or may not become expressed immediately in some form of overt behavior. Generalization is the ability to utilize that recombination in other situations.[7]

---

[6]Kalinowski and Jordan, World Order, 7, No. 3, 17.

[7]Ibid., 23.

Behaviorists recognize that sensing two stimuli as different events presupposes an individual's ability to differentiate between them, while pairing them presupposes a capacity to associate or integrate the two stimuli. This pairing is then generalized to future situations.

Another example of how differentiation, integration, and generalization represent a common denominator among various learning theories is seen in Kurt Lewin's field theory. According to his theory, learning and the modification of behavior depend upon the change of the cognitive structure associated with any given situation. These changes come about in response to different perceptions in combination with internal forces such as needs and values. As a child responds to the forces impinging upon him, he has to alter his cognitive structure in order to proceed. The possible changes in structure are infinite and, according to Lewin, they represent increasing and decreasing differentiation and integration and combinations of them.

The Swiss genetic epistemologist, Jean Piaget, through meticulous research on his own children has made a vast contribution to our understanding of learning and human development. His research forms an important part of ANISA's empirical base. The concepts of assimilation and accommodation in Piaget's theory can be seen as cases of differentiation and integration. Assimilation occurs whenever an individual comes upon something new in relation to something known; accommodation refers to the outer adaptation that is made when the new evidence is integrated with the old. Through these two

complementary processes a hierarchically organized internal structure emerges, which can be observed as generalizable behavior. In describing Piaget's concept of learning J. McVicker Hunt, an interpreter of his works, explains:

> In the course of this dual adaptive process of assimilation and accommodation, the ready-made reflex schemata of the newborn infant becomes progressively transformed through differentiations and coordinations, into the logical organizations of adult intelligence. [8]

THE ANISA THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT

We have said that man is characterized by an infinitude of potentialities and that his transcendent powers enable him to create further potentialities and thus to "perpetually move beyond himself." [9] Through the processes of differentiation, integration, and generalization, man's potentialities are translated into actuality. He learns and thereby develops. Conscious control over these three processes is learning competence.

The process of translating potentiality into actuality ANISA regards synonymous with "development." There are two basic kinds of potentiality, biological and psychological. Each has its respective processes through which potentialities are expressed.

---

[8] J. McVicker Hunt, Intelligence and Experience (New York: Ronald Press, 1961), p. 113.

[9] Daniel C. Jordan and Donald T. Streets, "The ANISA Model: A New Basis for Educational Planning," Young Children, XXVIII, No. 5 (June, 1973), 292.

Such development is the result of an individual's interaction with his environment. ANISA's four classifications of environments include the physical environment, the human environment, the unknowns, and the self. "As the self interacts with the environment, its potentialities (expressed through the processes) are actualized, that is, they become powers."[10] As potentialities are actualized they must be ordered. Development is a changing, innovating process for the individual, but not one that is random or without structure. Its changes involve going "through successive stages, each of which presupposes its antecedent and is in turn a prerequisite to its successor."[11] The primary requirement for releasing potentialities of individuals at an optimum rate is the maintenance of a balance between order and change. Whitehead has explained that

> The art of progress is to preserve order amid change, and to preserve change amid order . . . .
>
> Order is not sufficient. What is required, is something much more complex. It is order entering upon novelty; so that the massiveness of order does not degenerate into mere repetition; and so that the novelty is always reflected upon a background of system.[12]

The principal factor in actualizing biological potentialities is nutrition; psychological potentialities are actualized through the process of learning. ANISA organizes man's psychological potentialities into

---

[10] Ibid., p. 302.

[11] Kalinowski and Jordan, World Order, 7, No. 4, 22.

[12] Whitehead, Process and Reality, pp. 399-400.

five categories: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. The processes that underlie these potentialities are identified in the ANISA Model along with specifications as to their functioning.

Among the infinitude of human potentialities, ANISA has sought to identify those central to an individual's development. Two criteria are used to determine the importance of a process: (1) the degree of control over the environment it brings to the individual and (2) the extent to which it is fundamental to other processes.

As mentioned earlier, potentiality, particularly psychological, is translated into actuality through the processes of differentiation, integration, and generalization. These also are not random or haphazard in development. They are guided by conscious intention and purpose. Purpose, when brought to bear on one's immediate reactions to experience, is the dynamic force that leads to self-actualization. [13]

THE ANISA THEORY OF CURRICULUM

The ANISA curriculum is made up of two sets of goals. One set concerns information to be learned (content) and is based upon a child's interaction with the four environments (physical, human, the unknowns, and self). The

---

[13] Organismic philosophy explains this assertion with its view of final and efficient causes: "The 'objectifications' of the actual entities in the actual world . . . constitute the efficient causes out of which that actual entity arises; . . .the 'subjective aim' at 'satisfaction' constitutes the final cause, or lure, whereby there is determinate concrescence." (actualization) See Whitehead, Process and Reality (1929), p. 134.

other consists of process goals, which are related to the five categories of potentialities and the means for releasing them. The effective teacher arranges the environment and guides the child's interaction with it so as to release his potentialities. He assists the child with mastering the process while assimilating information about the environment, thereby fulfilling content and process goals.

Written specifications on the processes in each of the five categories constitute the "process" curriculum. Each specification contains a definition of a particular process, its theoretical and empirical justification, an expression of the process in terms of an educational objective and an explanation of the kinds of experiences a child must have at a given developmental level in order to achieve the objective, and a statement on how the experiences can be evaluated.

Mastery of the central processes in each category constitutes learning competence in that area. For example, psychomotor competence refers to the capacity to coordinate, control, and direct the movement and position of voluntary muscles. Specific processes that contribute to the development of this competence are balance, locomotion, manipulation, etc.[14] Perceptual competence refers to the ability to differentiate sensory informa-

---

[14]This section on the five categories of competencies is adapted from Donald T. Streets and Daniel C. Jordan, "Guiding the Process of Becoming: The ANISA Theories of Curriculum and Teaching," World Order, 7, No. 4, (Summer, 1972), 31-32.

tion and to integrate that information into generalizable patterns which constitute interpretations of reality. The major educational objectives in this area relate to the visual and auditory processes. Associated with perceptual competence is cognition. Competence in this area, generally looked at as the "thinking" processes, depends upon differentiation, integration, and generalization of elements in the environment out of which internal cognitive structures develop. These structures represent an ability to carry out operations of analysis, synthesis, classification, seriation, deduction, induction, among others.

Affective competence is the ability to organize one's emotions and feelings in ways that support and facilitate the release of further potentialities. Some of the processes which contribute to gaining affective competence include inhibiting, facilitating, or coping with certain emotions--such as disappointment, anxiety, etc.

With the area of volitional competence, the Model identifies purpose as a key causal factor in behavior. Purpose directs the developmental process--the process of becoming--and gives criteria for making choices. To form aims, differentiate them into operable goals, and integrate them into a constant flow of intentional behavior directed toward attaining those goals, constitutes volitional competence. Some of the processes in this category of human potentiality are attention, goal-setting, perserverance, and effecting closure.

As the processes in these areas of competence become actualized and they are fused with content the values and attitudes of an individual are formed. The value structure emerges through interaction with the environment. Therefore, in the context of the physical environment process and content blend to form material values and on this rests one's technological competence. This same process in the human environment forms the basis of social attitudes upon which rests moral competence. Interactions with the unknown, which are made on faith, will structure religious values which are the basis for spiritual or philosophical competence. All of these areas of competence relate to the fourth environment, the self. Their actualization in interaction with the self represents the integration of one's powers and the formation of character. Self competence implies a mastery of the developmental process and being in charge of perpetual self-transcendence.

THE ANISA THEORY OF TEACHING

The theory of curriculum sets forth content and process goals that are achieved through interaction with the environment. The theory defines teaching as arranging particular environments and guiding a child's interactions with them to achieve specific curriculum goals. The overriding objective of the curriculum is the achievement of learning competence and the formation of character that is structured to ensure

continued development. To accomplish this a teacher will have to master the classifying of environments and interactions so he knows which type of learning competence is being facilitated.

Learning competence depends upon the abilities of differentiation, integration, and generalization. [15] The ANISA teacher will need to assess which of these processes a particular learning experience (interaction with environment) is fostering. It may be facilitating all three at once. One of the most critical factors in good teaching is ascertaining at what developmental level a child is with respect to the various aspects of learning competence and the processes that comprise them. Only then can the teacher effectively arrange the appropriate environments and guide interaction so that a child is challenged to reach up to another developmental level and consolidate it. The teacher sees the child as capable of actualizing an infinitude of potentialities and sees his role as a facilitator of their release.

The teacher's approach must be diagnostic and prescriptive. However, he may not possess sufficient knowledge about a child's level of functioning to make this judgment accurately; therefore, it requires also a posture of innovation and experimentation. Through continued spontaneous and imaginative applications of the theory the teacher will increase his knowledge

---

[15] It applies to all five domains: psycho-motor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional.

about the child's development and improve his ability to diagnose developmental levels and prescribe experiences. The theory of development suggests that as a child progresses he is able ultimately to know his own needs and select experiences that will facilitate his growth. The competent learner, then is an independent learner.

In trying to match interactions to a child's developmental level and to stretch him beyond, the ANISA teacher must improvise. Improvise means to make up for that which is "not foreseen." Often not much information is known about a child; improvisation is a way of trying things out based on the theory, thereby generating more information for the teacher's diagnostic process. Improvisation suggests being flexible and seeing possibilities and opportunities in things that others would fail to recognize. This means getting the most out of any learning situation, whether it is playing with blocks, flying a kite, or sailing a toy boat. It implies being able to use ordinary educational materials or apparent "non-materials" in an imaginative way. The ANISA teacher is <u>generative</u>. He is not dependent on any new line of products or style of equipment. He can "generate" learning experiences from any situation. Ultimately the ANISA theory of teaching involves providing whatever experiences are needed, when they are needed, to release the potentialities of the child at an optimum rate, thereby enabling him to become a competent learner.

THE STAFFING OF ANISA

The ANISA Model emphasizes individualizing instruction by prescribing the appropriate environmental interactions for each child's level of development. The staffing structure for the Model is designed to help achieve this. An ANISA staff is differentiated functionally according to the specialized needs of the child. The master teacher is supported by a team of specialists in evaluation, curriculum, communications, the arts, health, learning disabilities, and home-community relationships. Some of these specialists will assist in the diagnostic and prescriptive process, while others will be able to draw upon their respective disciplines as means for the release of certain potentialities and the development of learning competence.

A differentiated structure makes it possible to use staff in their areas of strength and thus provide a high quality and comprehensive system of support for the development of each child. Like an individual, however, the potentiality of the staff can only be actualized through their effective integration. Clearly this requires that the staff be unified around well-stated objectives that are grounded in the philosophy of the Model. More than that, it necessitates that the ANISA staff, which make up an "organization," are integrated through an administrative framework that stimulates the actualization of the organization's potentialities and also sustains that process.

No ANISA teacher works alone and no ANISA classroom exists in a vacuum. A program based on the Model is composed of individuals and

relationships that comprise a system. Its effectiveness is influenced by innumerable interactions with its internal and external environments. What processes underlie the competence of an organization? What practices will release the potentialities of the ANISA staff and, consequently, the entire system at an optimum rate? These questions call for the framing of an ANISA theory of administration. Without it ANISA cannot claim to be comprehensive or scientific. Short-term, piecemeal, "off the cuff" strategies of administration inevitably undermine the most praiseworthy efforts in teaching.

THE NEED FOR AN ANISA THEORY OF ADMINISTRATION

The need to articulate the conceptual framework of the administration of the ANISA Model may be looked at askance by professional administrators and "practitioners" in the field. But one of the fathers of administrative thought, Kurt Lewin, wrote: "There is nothing so practical as a good theory."[16] A theory of administration, in fact, is a useful guide to administrative behavior. Behind every attempt to influence others lies a theory concerning cause and effect in human behavior. Without a theory there would be no basis for choice among the many actions one could take nor is there any efficient way to train administrators. Effectiveness in administrative behavior is really a function

---

[16]Quoted in Warren Bennis, Changing Organizations: Essays on the Development and Evolution of Human Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), p. 85.

of the adequacy of the theory behind the approach. The formulation of a comprehensive theory can help administrators understand why certain decisions and practices work, while others do not.

In the administration of many organizations there is abundant evidence of waste, frustration, and misunderstanding. As Lyndall Urwick, organizational theorist, expressed it: "Patching and improvisation are likely to make the confusion more confounded."[17] Administrative skill is a practical art but practice divorced from theory is likely to be limited in its results, just as theory untested by practice is likely to prove sterile and misleading.

The failure to conceptualize administration on a general theoretical level has been a major obstacle to the development of administration as a rigorous discipline. A comprehensive theory will be capable of generating both hypotheses for guiding research and principles for guiding practice. The lack of a general conceptual framework hinders our systematizing and integrating knowledge from allied fields.

For the area of research, a theory should help to discern gaps in our existing knowledge and also further other empirical designs. In the applied fields, a broad theoretical framework could give the practitioner a behavioral checklist. It will clarify the organizational setting for him and give him greater precision in analysis.

---

[17] Lyncall Urwick, The Elements of Administration (New York: Harper & Bros., 1943), p. 14.

A theory is a set of assumptions from which can be derived a larger set of laws, which are then empirically testable. This process points up that what is "good in theory" cannot be "bad in practice." The "practice" or empirical application is the test of the soundness of any theory. Ultimately a theory deals with "what is" and not "what ought to be."[18]

It has been said that one of the difficulties in constructing a theory of administration has been the absence of clear definitions which have achieved even minimal acceptance. There is a great confusion of terminology. A concept, though, is simply a term to which meaning has been attached. In developing a theory for ANISA administration some familiar concepts will be recast in different terms and new ones will have to be created; together they can function as a consistent framework that is compatible with the ANISA philosophy.

A discussion of laws and empiricism may sound overly scientific for a field which has so recently caught the attention of even the behavioral sciences. Some say that administration can never be a science. But what is a science? Fundamentally, it is a set of premises based upon a sufficiently large number of observations to predict that when a particular set of circumstances occur, a certain result can be expected. Science is con-

---

[18]Daniel E. Griffiths, "The Nature and Making of a Theory," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 63, Part II (Chicago:University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 98.

cerned with the extension of knowledge. In an applied field like administration, improved practice becomes the overriding purpose of such scientific study. ANISA addressed the goal of improving educational practice by starting with a theory. This writer will start at the same point for administration. What is to be gained is a clarification of thought about the nature and principles of administration and the methods by which the principles can be applied to actual situations. Moreover, the construction of a theory for ANISA administration should give the Model a way of addressing organizational behavior and provide guiding principles for the orderly pursuit of new knowledge in the field.

CHAPTER TWO

THE EVOLUTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE THOUGHT

INTRODUCTION

Administration is virtually as old as civilization but formal study of the discipline is relatively new. Administration is essential to all organized endeavors. Broadly defined it is an activity which carries out certain functions designed to allocate human efforts and physical resources in order to accomplish specific goals. Administrative "thought," then, is the existing body of knowledge about the activity of administration, its functions, purpose, and scope.

We hear now of quantitative behavioral and systems approaches to management, and it is difficult to sort out these ideas and then integrate them into some unified framework. A study of the evolution of administrative thought can identify the origins of ideas, trace their development, give perspective in terms of the historical environment, and, therefore, provide a conceptual framework which will assist the process of integration. This chapter will look at the ideas and influence of particular individuals and at the same time try to identify broader trends and movements in order to build a coherent picture of the subject. Whole books have been written about a single figure or theory in administrative thought, so this effort will necessarily be just an overview. Although administration certainly came into play in the building of the pyramids, and though Moses later displayed some noteworthy management principles, this overview will be confined to a

study of administration as it began to take shape as a formal discipline. A review of this sort is necessary because strands from the various schools of administration have been interwoven into the ANISA theory.

THE AGE OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

The last half of the nineteenth century was the scene of revolutionary growth in American industry. Technological advances had resulted in unprecedented accumulations of resources. It soon became clear that a major obstacle to higher industrial productivity was the organization and administration of these resources. Since engineers played the pivotal role in designing equipment and laying out shops, it is no surprise that they emerged as the first systematizers of management. Their research was in the interests of increasing output and efficiency. Their question was "How do we get more out of our workers," and the underlying assumption was that people are naturally lazy.

The Dominance of Frederick Taylor

The central figure of this school was Frederick Winslow Taylor. In the 1880's Taylor found himself in the midst of some bitter labor-management clashes and felt that what both sides needed were "facts" not "fancy" about production and productivity. In an attempt to find a solution to these growing labor-management disputes, he set out to determine scientifically what the

men ought to be able to do with their materials and equipment. This was the basis of scientific management--the use of a scientific fact-finding method to determine empirically the right way to perform tasks.

Taylor carried out a systematic analysis of the use of tools and of work methods. He broke down each job into as many simple movements as possible; useless movements were thrown out. The fastest and best methods for each elementary movement were selected by observing the most skilled laborer doing each, and the movement was timed and recorded. Out of this came standardization of methods, tools, and working conditions and what is referred to as time and motion studies. In the analysis of tasks can also be found the roots of cost accounting and production control. In addition to proposals for scientific standards of work, Taylor added the technique of the selection of men who could meet those standards when motivated by a differential piece rate. These complementary practices he himself referred to as a "task system," and it eventually came to be known as scientific management. His approach was a narrow one, however, and failed to recognize man as a member of a group. He felt he was seeking the highest degree of individual development and reward through fatigue reduction, matching men's abilities to tasks, and through incentive plans.

Distressed by the growing number of "efficiency experts" who were haphazardly applying his theories without a grasp of the fundamental philosophy behind it, Taylor testified in Washington, D. C., and emphatically

made the point that scientific management was essentially a change in the attitude of both workers and employers toward their duties, their fellow workers, and their employees or supervisors. "This," he explained, "is the essence of scientific management, this great mental revolution."[1] Again, leaning more toward the philosophical outlook than to matters of cost and time, Taylor explained that his system hinged on five main elements, each of which was indispensable to the application of his theories:

1. Science, not rule of thumb
2. Harmony, not discord
3. Cooperation, not individualism
4. Maximum output, in place of restricted output
5. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity. [2]

Related Developments

Frederick Taylor was certainly the prophet of scientific management, but two of his chief disciples, Barth and Gantt, should be noted for their spreading of his gospel. Norwegian born Carl Barth was considered the most orthodox of his followers. His background in mathematics led him to take Taylor's work into very complicated logarithmic analysis of metal-cutting machines and the proper rate at which they could make materials.

Henry Gantt, on the other hand, felt free to extend Taylor's thought into some new directions. He felt foremen should act as "teachers" not

---

[1]Daniel A. Wren, The Evolution of Management Thought (New York: Ronald Press, 1972), p. 143.

[2]Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper & Row, 1911), p. 140.

directors, and he can be associated with the first stirrings of human behavioral thought in his statement: "Whatever we do must be in accord with human nature. We cannot drive people; we must direct their development."[3] Gantt also employed extensive graphic aids for presenting and analyzing information on scheduling, planning and production control. This was a major contribution toward the field and was the forerunner of Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), which was more intricate but was based upon the principles of planning and controlling times and resources.

Taylorism, as it was also called, overshadowed the work of other thinkers in the field well into the twentieth century. This was partly because the methods of scientific management seemed especially suited to the production demands of the First World War. Taylor's theory and techniques spread to Europe, where they had adherents and critics. At the beginning of this century the scientific movement reached the apex of its influence in college curricula, in industry, and in the international management movement.

THE EMERGENCE OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

From the perspective of an added fifty years most students and teachers of administration look at Taylor's contributions as ending in the

---

[3]H. L. Gantt, Work, Wages, and Profits (New York: Engineering Magazine Co., 1911), p. 124.

backwater of engineering administration and motion studies. The main stream of modern management theory was developed by a number of executives who showed brilliant insight into the administrative process. The pioneer in this direction was Henri Fayol, a contemporary of Taylor's.

The Work of Henri Fayol

Fayol, like Taylor was an engineer but whereas Taylor worked his way up from the shop, Fayol always identified with the management side of the enterprise. Taylor was interested in the habits and methods of workers, while Fayol built his system of general management from the executive viewpoint and then applied it downwards. Fayol published his first work, Administration industrielle et generale, at the age of seventy-five. And for the most part translations of his works did not receive widespread exposure until the 1940's, nearly twenty-five years after his death, so recognition of his contributions was made in very recent memory and decades after Frederick Taylor, who had been born fifteen years later than Fayol.

Fayol stressed the importance of administration in all undertakings, "large or small, industrial, commercial, political, religious or any other."[4] This focus on the "universality" of administration did a great deal to set the field apart as an area of study in itself. Crucial also to his thinking was the

---

[4]Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Administration, trans. Constance Storrs (London: Sir Isaac Pitman's & Sons, 1949), p. xxi.

idea that as one moved up the organizational hierarchy, the need for technical ability decreased and the need for managerial ability increased. Connected with this was his notion that the teaching of management was essential to the future of organizations. One reason for the absence of management teaching was the absence of a theory. As one author puts it, "Each manager followed his own methods, principles, and personal theories, but no one had ever tried to fit the acceptable precepts and experiences into a general framework of administrative theory."[5] Fayol, therefore, built his case for an administrative theory on three points: (1) the fact that administration was a separate ability applicable to all types of undertakings (2) that this ability was a dominant need as one moved up the management ladder (3) the premise that administrative abilities could be taught.

Because of different translations there exists some confusion as to Fayol's meaning when referring to management and administration. It is generally held that he saw management as an overall function of conducting an undertaking toward its objectives, while administration was only one part of that function.[6] Therefore, we will refer to his fundamental concepts as the elements of management.

---

[5]Wren, The Evolution . . . , p. 217.

[6]This problem in terminology will be discussed in a later segment of the paper.

Fayol identified five elements in his theory of management: planning, organizing, command, coordination, and control. He stressed the first element, planning or prevoyance. The French word implies an ability to look ahead, to have a view of the future, which Fayol regarded as essential. A good plan of action, he wrote, had the characteristics of unity (one overall plan followed by specific subplans); flexibility (to bend to unexpected events); and precision (eliminating guesswork). These concepts, plus the idea which he raised of participation in planning by various levels have served as useful guides in long-range planning up to the present day.

The second element in Fayol's theory is organizing, which referred to the provision and structuring of material and human resources for the objectives and requirements of the concern. Other writers extracted staffing and made it a separate category but to Fayol organizing meant providing the organization with everything useful to its functioning, including personnel. Organizational charts became the tangible, universal expression of this important management function.

Command, Fayol's third element had to do with getting "the optimum return from all employees of his unit in the interest of the whole concern."[7] He saw this as an art that often depended upon a manager's personal qualities. His fourth element of administration was coordination. Its object was to

---

[7] Fayol, General and Industrial Administration, p. 97.

harmonize all the activities of a concern so as to facilitate its working and its success."[8] Fayol saw this being accomplished through well-informed managers, liaison staff, and frequent conferences. The fifth element, control, meant checking to see that everything operated consistent with the plan; it implied finding errors and correcting them. All people, objects and activities were subject to control.

In addition to formulating these five elements of management, Fayol discussed at least fourteen "principles" of management drawn from his industrial experience. Some of these included authority, unit of command, remuneration, centralization, order, equity, esprit de corps, etc. He saw these as guides to theory and practice, but not as rigid laws or by any means exhaustive. So many of his concepts are now standard terminology in management study that it is difficult to perceive what truly unique insights he brought to the field.

Other Noteworthy Contributions

The favorable reception with which Fayol's works were met in the thirties and forties had to do with the fact that one branch of administrative thought was heavily oriented to formalism in organizational theory, a concern for organizational structure and design, and an executive viewpoint. Two leaders in this regard were Gulick and Urwick, who, in fact, were

---

[8] Ibid., p. 103.

responsible for renewed interest in Fayol with their publication of his theories in Papers on the Science of Administration.

Luther Gulick amplified Fayol's elements of management with his view of the eight-part functions of the executive, which have become famous by the acronym POSDCORB. The initials represented the following activities: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordination, reporting, and budgeting. Most of his descriptions of these principles relate to government administration, which was his experience. Though POSDCORB is easily remembered, Gulick's more important contribution seemed to be in his writings on the value and methods of departmentalization in management.

His colleague, Lyndall Urwick, looked at various developments in the study of administration and tried to correlate them and integrate them into a broad administrative theory. Starting with Fayol's fourteen principles, he applied Mooney and Reilley's framework of "principle, process, and effect." (see Fig. 1) With this approach he continued to expand on the structure and mechanism of an organization but not on its nature as a whole.

The Principles of Command and Control The object of command and control is to secure the general interest and to see that it is not interfered with by individual interests.		
1. Principle	2. Process	3. Effect
Centralization Its main principle is centralization.	Staffing Centralization enters into process through appropriate staffing.	Esprit de Corps And takes effect in esprit de corps.

FIGURE 1 shows the scheme Urwick used in formulating his theory of administration. He borrowed elements from Fayol and Mooney and Reilley.

Contemporary with these theoreticians was one of the undisputed giants in administrative thought, Chester Barnard. Barnard put forth an analysis of the formal organization but his examination of informal organizations and the cooperative system make him a unique bridge to other developments in the field.

TOWARD A MORE HUMANE VIEW OF ORGANIZATIONS

Chester Barnard and the Cooperative System

Barnard's best known work, The Functions of the Executive (1938), was an attempt to develop a theory of organizations and to stimulate others to take up this examination. He felt that the search for universals in administration had been too concerned with the nature and origin of authority. He felt that most social crises were due to the failure to provide for human cooperation in formal organizations. Barnard explained that the "formal organization is that kind of cooperation among men that is conscious, deliberate, and purposeful."[9] He saw three goals in his analysis: (1) to insure the survival of an organization by "the maintenance of an equilibrium of complex character in a continously fluctuating environment of physical, biological, and social materials, elements, and forces" within an organization (2) to examine the external forces to which such adjustments must

---

[9]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 4.

be made; and (3) to analyze the functions of executives at all levels. [10] This approach of internal equilibrium and external adjustment was a departure from the traditional theorists, who focused solely on intra-organizational analysis.

In The Functions of an Executive Barnard described two key concepts relating to organizational life, which in a sense represented a dichotomy. He explained that a formal system of cooperation required an objective or purpose and if cooperation was successful, this goal was achieved and the system was effective. To be efficient, however, was the degree to which individual motives and needs were satisfied. Only the individual could determine this and if they were not satisfied, he withdrew his efforts or withdrew from the system. Barnard concluded that "the only measure of the efficiency of a cooperative system is its capacity to survive," that is, its ability to meet individual needs in the pursuit of group purposes. [11] This attempt to bridge the requirements of formal organization with the needs of the socio-human system was a landmark in administrative thought and at the basis of efforts today.

Barnard framed a definition of the organization that he felt would be universal. It was "a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces

---

[10] Points one through three are adapted from Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, p. 6.

[11] Ibid., pp. 55-57.

of two or more persons."[12] And every system contained three universal elements: (1) willingness to cooperate (2) common purpose and (3) communications. Barnard laid great stress on communication--it was the process by which these first two universal elements became dynamic. In this regard he said that lines of communication should be clearly known and as direct or short as possible. He identified "informal organizations"--a network of personal interaction and associations not part of the formal structure--as a major factor in an organization's efficiency and effectiveness. They facilitated communication, cohesiveness, and feelings of self-respect.

Barnard's thinking did not fit the mold of the authoritarian theorists. He saw authority as a two-way street. For a variety of reasons individuals "assented" to authority. Expressed generally, this meant that all organizations depended upon leadership which could develop the capacity and willingness of members to cooperate. His analysis of executive functions showed this same perspective. "The executive functions," he wrote, "serve to maintain a system of cooperative effort . . . . The functions are not, as so frequently stated, to manage a group of persons."[13]

The Appearance of Industrial Psychology

Eras in administrative thought typically blend into one another and find their roots in earlier theory. Chester Barnard was a principal figure in the

---

[12] Ibid., p. 72.

[13] Ibid., pp. 215-216.

movement for formal organizational theory but his concern for man in a group, in a cooperative system, makes him a bridge to other trends in administrative thought that had also been growing since the early part of the century. Industrial psychology emerged with a focus on the individual and what made him do a job well. This was still broadened by sociologists who postulated that man had to be viewed as a social being.

Hugo Munsterberg for most is considered the father of industrial psychology. He came from Germany in 1892 to establish a psychological laboratory at Harvard. Industry was willing to accept the ideas from this newly born academic field (and somewhat suspect at that) because industrial psychologists, too, were primarily concerned with efficiency. Scientific management gave industrial psychology its ethic, its scope, and its direction for research. Munsterberg wanted a rigorous scientific method applied to human behavior as Taylor had applied it to materials and equipment. He published a work, Psychology and Industrial Efficiency, that closely paralleled Taylor's areas of interest.[14] It contained three major sections: "The Best Possible Man," "The Best Possible Work," and "The Best Possible Effect." In section one he investigated the demands jobs made on men and the need to find those men whose mental qualities made them best suited for the work they had to do. Section two sought to determine psychological conditions under

---

[14]Hugo Munsterberg, Psychology and Industrial Efficiency(Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913).

which the best output could be obtained from every man. Part three studied producing the influences on human needs which were desirable for the interests of the business.

The focus on individual differences and the psychological conditions for productivity created widespread interest in the human side of industry. Others, like Scott, Rowntree, and Tead, made added contributions. [15] On the applied side, starting with companies like B. F. Goodrich and National Cash Register, personnel departments grew up. And still more assumptions about men in organizations were being shaped by the contributions of early sociological theorists.

Contributions from the Field of Sociology

At the roots of the discipline of sociology was the work of three nineteenth century intellectuals: Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, and Vilfredo Pareto. [16] Weber established sociology as a field of inquiry but gave his attention to the relationship between economics and society. His theories on the subject of bureaucracy related more to the efforts of the formal "structural" theorists

---

[15]Walter Scott, Benjamin Rowntree, and Ordway Tead were behind the burgeoning "personnel management" movement with its work in psychological testing, personnel selection and placement, promotion policies, and welfare schemes.

[16]The major works of these writers are The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism and The Theory of Social and Economic Organization (Weber); The Division of Labor in Society and The Rules of Sociological Method (Durkheim); The Mind and Society and The Treatise on General Sociology (Pareto).

discussed earlier. Durkheim, on the other hand, wrote about "organic societies." In his Division of Labor he examined group solidarity and called for a new collective consciousness that would substitute the group as the source of values and norms. This would eliminate the anomie (normlessness) he had identified in modern society. Pareto is considered the father of the notion of the social system. His ideas on society as a cluster of interdependent but variable parts strongly influenced the human relations movement in its concern for the interdependence of the physical and social aspects of the work environment.

The Hawthorne Studies and the Spawning of the Human Relations Movement

The psychological and social school of administrative study received its greatest impetus from the empirical work of Elton Mayo and his now famous Hawthorne Studies. In 1924 the National Research Council of the Academy of Sciences conducted research on the effects of illumination on efficiency at the Western Electric Company near Chicago. Using two groups of female assembly line workers, the experimenters varied the light intensity according to six levels in one group but maintained a low level of illumination for the other (control group). Both groups were set apart from the regular work force and were given the constant attention of the experimenters. The researchers observed the groups and kept accurate records of production.

The puzzling result was that regardless of the amount of illumination, both groups significantly increased their output. Sensing that they may have stumbled on something very important but unforeseen, Hawthorne researchers

invited Elton Mayo and a group of his associates from Harvard to come to the plant to investigate their findings.

Picking up the loose threads of the National Research Council experiments, the Harvard group indeed found far more valuable insights into industrial man than had originally been imagined. Mayo ran intensive experiments with one group of workers to check the correlation between material and environmental variables and worker output--rest periods, improved physical environment in the test room, length of day, and even wage incentives. With better conditions, the group's productivity clearly increased but even after the group returned to the regular work setting, its productivity continued to rise enormously. The researchers concluded that it was the "human factors" of improved morale, supervision and interpersonal relations that led to greater output in both sets of circumstances.

As Mayo expressed it, "a remarkable change of mental attitude in the group" was the answer to the Hawthorne mystery. [17] The women in the group had become a social unit; they enjoyed the attention of the experimenters and developed a sense of participation in the project. Working extra hard because of the feeling of participating in something special or new has become to be known as the "Hawthorne effect."

With this verification of the influence of the social milieu of industrial life, Mayo and his chief associates, Roethlisberger and Dickson, opened the

---

[17] Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization (New York: MacMillan Co., 1933), pp. 71-72.

door to research on interpersonal relations and organizational life. Improved social or human conditions were just as important, if not more so, to productivity as material conditions. Connected with this was their observation that supervision which showed openness and concern had a direct and measurable effect on the output and morale of workers. These postulates were the foundation of the human relations movement in administration. The social system viewpoint also developed out of this research. It held that the technical aspect of needs for efficiency and economic return should be viewed as interrelated with concern for the human aspect of organization. An employee has social as well as physical needs to be satisfied. Events and objects in the physical environment have to be interpreted as carriers of social value. A physical desk has no social significance, but if people who have desks supervise others, then the desk becomes a status symbol and a carrier of social value. Informal group associations were as important as formal structures. Human collaboration was to be the social character of modern industrial and organizational life.

Mayo wrote during an era marked by world conflict, depression, and social upheaval. He was concerned that social and political institutions had failed to provide means for effective human collaboration and that an overemphasis on technical progress and material life to the neglect of human and social life would be the downfall of organized society. In a philosophical vein he wrote:

> . . . the atomic bomb arrives at this moment to call our attention both to our achievement and our failure. We have learned how to destroy scores of thousands of human beings in a moment of time;

> we do not know how systematically to set about the task of inducing various groups and nations to collaborate in the tasks of civilization. [18]

The new thrust of this school of administrative thought had two focuses: (1) one was that employees were motivated only secondarily by material factors; and (2) that group relationships and cooperation directly influence an organization's effectiveness. The latter area of inquiry was given tremendous support by the work of Mary Parker Follett.

Mary Parker Follett and the Group Potential

Chronologically Mary Follett belonged to the era of scientific management, but philosophically she was attuned to the social and psychological aspects of administration. Many of her concepts anticipated the conclusions of Mayo's research. Basically she was a political philosopher, who saw that her universal concepts on administration could be applied to business administration as easily as political administration.

Follett's main thesis was that

> We find the true man only through group organization. The potentialities of the individual remain potentialities until they are released by group life. Man discovers his true nature, gains his true freedom only through the group. [19]

Her philosophy certainly challenged the prevailing political assumptions about the role and rights of the individual. To her, democracy was not individualism

---

[18]Wren, The Evolution . . . , p. 293.

[19]Mary Parker Follett, The New State: Group Organization, the Solution of Popular Government (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1918), p. 6.

but the development of a social consciousness. She explained it almost metaphysically:

> Democracy then is a great spiritual force evolving itself from men, utilizing each, completing his incompleteness by weaving together all in the many-membered community life which is the true theophany. 20

Even more directly applicable to administration were the theories on group discussion and cooperation that she laid down in Creative Experience. Her theme was that people could evoke each other's latent ideas and make manifest their unity in pursuit of common goals. Influenced somewhat by Gestalt psychology (as the human relations movement would also be), Follett felt that through group experiences the individual could reach a greater release of his own creative powers. The goal of group effort was an integrative unity which transcended the parts. Her concept was particularly relevant to problem-solving and conflict resolution. The conflict of any interests or ideas could be resolved through (1) domination--a victory for one side or the other, through struggle or voluntary submission; (2) compromise--each side gives up something in order to have resolution; (3) integration--a place is found for each desire, neither side sacrifices, both gain. Domination was unacceptable because it involved power or force and compromise only postponed the issue. "Truth," Follett wrote, "does not lie 'between' the two sides."[21] Integration

---

[20] Ibid., p. 161.

[21] Mary Parker Follett, Creative Experience (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1924), p. 156.

was a creative, unifying process. It meant transcending the boundaries of mutually exclusive alternatives.

According to Follett, conflict had constructive implications for administration. It was not a wasteful clash of incompatibilities but "a normal process by which valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned."[22]

Essential to achieving integration in an organization was the need for a feeling on the part of all levels that they served a common purpose. Follett believed that the line between the manager and managed was an artificial one, that all members of an organization were contributing to a whole. However, certain concepts had to be rethought in this philosophical context. The role of "boss" and "subordinate" created barriers to recognizing the commonality of interests. To counteract this, the essence of good administration was to create the feeling of working with someone and not working under someone. In her terms this became "power-with" versus "power-over." Jointly exercised power was "co-active," not coercive. Through open interaction and a process based on the opportunity for each part to influence the other, gradually "power-with" could be obtained. This theory led to an interesting concept of responsibility--cumulative responsibility. No individual function in an organization should be seen in isolation but in terms of its interdependence

---

[22]Bertram M. Gross, "The Scientific Approach to Administration," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Yearbook for the National Society for the Study of Education, 63, Part II, 45.

with and contribution to other functions. Responsibility was cumulative in the sense that it was the sum of all individual and group responsibilities in a system of cross relationships. A person was responsible for work and not to someone and the responsibility for work was jointly shared. In this were the seeds of participatory management.

Mary Parker Follett gained an international reputation in business and political thought for her rather iconoclastic notions of integrative unity and the group principle. She did recognize the need for a "mental revolution" for the realization of her concepts. As a start she called for executive development aimed at applying a scientific standard to both physical and human decisions and at developing a motive of service to the community.

Lewin's Group Dynamics

While the Hawthorne Studies spawned the human relations movement in administration, the research work of German psychologist Kurt Lewin gave it momentum and direction. Like Follett, his focus was on group behavior but his approach to what he termed "group dynamics" was more analytical. Lewin's field theory saw behavior as a function of the person and his environment or "field." Group behavior was a complex set of interactions that not only influenced the structure of the group but modified individual behavior as well. Lewin and his colleagues set on several years of research into the forces and tensions operating within groups, giving particular attention to change and leadership. He concluded that "authoritarian" leadership (as

opposed to "democratic" or "laissez-faire") blocked initiative and lowered morale. Lewin also found that change was better introduced through group discussion than individual direction--the idea that change took place more easily when people felt they had figured out the need for change rather than just being told to change. The efforts of Lewin and his associates eventually led to the formation of human relations laboratories, including the National Training Laboratory in 1947. Lewin had brought a new focus to the group and to the dynamic state of the individual in interaction with others. The National Training Laboratory took this research and tried to achieve "changes" in behavior through structured interactions in group "sensitivity" experiences.

A LARGER VIEW OF MAN--STUDIES OF MOTIVATION

The thrust of the human relations movement was the study of group behavior and, growing out of this, the subject of motivation. Abraham Maslow opened up the possibility of a multi-dimensional approach to motivation by proposing a theoretical hierarchy of man's needs.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In 1943 Maslow identified five levels of needs: physiological, security, affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization. These needs were arranged in a hierarchy and were interrelated. As one need was satisfied, next higher

needs successively emerged to dominate behavior.[23] If a lower order need was threatened, it would motivate behavior but generally the psychological needs were the ones U. S. organizations should be concerned about. Self-actualization, at the top of the hierarchy, was man's self-fulfillment, attaining what he had the potential of becoming. As Maslow expressed it, "What a man can be, he must be."[24]

It was thought that in a subsistence level society physiological needs would seem to dominate but the American economy had moved on to higher levels of need priority. Maslow's thinking spurred human relationists to focus on group plans and to promote social solidarity.

McGregor's Theory of Motivation

A significant contribution to the theories of worker motivation was made by Douglas McGregor less than two decades ago. A social psychologist at M. I. T. for many years, McGregor provided a kind of bridge between the human relations school in administrative thought and the more contemporary organizational behaviorists. It was McGregor's contention that whether

---

[23]More recently Maslow's theory has come under fire. Though outwardly humanistic, it suggests that man is first motivated by physiological needs at the expense of all other concerns. In fact, in many cultures, such as India, man is motivated by other higher level needs before his physiological need has begun to be met. For religious reasons, the Hindu is moved to feed his holy cow, while he himself starves.

[24]Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.:Prentice Hall, 1972), p. 21.

theorists in scientific management had focused on the economic side of man or the human relationists were concentrating on man's social needs, there was not that much radically different between them because their underlying assumptions about the nature of man were often the same. Both were incomplete and were based on erroneous assumptions of human behavior. McGregor believed that an examination of the philosophical base was critical because an administrator's style of operating really depended upon his assumptions about man's nature and behavior.

One set of assumptions that McGregor described was to represent the traditional view of direction and control. This he called Theory X. Its assumptions were:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all. [25]

According to McGregor, these assumptions prevailed in management practice. Sometimes lip service was paid to another philosophy but the behavior of most administrators stemmed from these premises. McGregor

---

[25]Warren G. Bennis, Edgar H. Schein, and Caroline McGregor (eds.), Leadership and Motivation: Essays of Douglas McGregor (Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1966), pp. 3-20.

countered these negative assumptions with a philosophy about man and motivation which he named Theory Y. In it he put forth these notions:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, for example, the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objectives.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized. 26

Using Theory Y as a philosophical base, administrators would unleash man's potential so that he could attain his goals through channeling his efforts toward achieving organizational goals. How people are treated turns into a self-fulfilling prophecy. If a supervisor assumes that people are lazy, he treats them in a certain way that tends to make them lazy. McGregor moved beyond the thinking of human relations theorists in that he felt the approach of administration should not be to humanize a basically unrewarding

---

[26] Ibid.

situation for workers but to alter assumptions and see that employees had the capacity to integrate their personal goals with those of the organization.

Related Contributions

Chris Argyris' behavioral research on the human personality seemed to corroborate McGregor's premises. His studies showed that formal organizations are structured to keep people immature and undeveloped. In McGregor's terms, this is because philosophically they subscribe to Theory X and such is the end result. Added to this growing body of knowledge about what motivated man was Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Through extensive interviews with workers he concluded that man has two categories of needs--one set, which he called "hygiene factors," refers to a worker's environment and prevents job dissatisfaction. The other set, which he called "motivators," is comprised of those positive factors that lead people to superior performance.

THE MODERN MORASS

Whereas the early disciples of the human relations approach often saw man's social needs as contrary to the nature of organizations, especially industrial, the modern behavioralists searched for a harmony between man and organization. They sought a just adaptation of human needs and aspirations to the requirements and goals of the organization. It is a quest whose goal was to resolve the conflict between the logic of efficiency and the reality of sentiments.

Parallel with these efforts has been the flowering of still other generations of management theorists that used Fayol's traditional concepts as a starting point and attempted to supplement or integrate them with the contributions made by sociologists and psychologists. The perspective of these writers (for example, Terry, Drucker, Koontz and O'Donnell) was one of "process and principles," focusing on what an administrator did and how he did it. [27] Some modern theory-builders focused on one aspect of the administrative process, planning or decision-making, as their tool of analysis. Simon felt that "the power to make decisions which guide the actions of others" is the basis of administration. [28] Studies at Ohio State concentrated on leadership as the critical factor in administration, and at the University of Chicago Getzels and Guba outlined the "social process model" of organizational behavior, which corresponded directly to Barnard's two-dimensional analysis of administration.

Added to the varied developments and elaborations in thought of the traditional and human relations schools was the work of the last two decades in quantitative research, social systems approaches, and information theory. For the system theorists the organization was an interacting complex of

---

[27]George Terry humanized his principles of management with phrases like "leading human efforts" instead of merely directing. Peter Drucker brought the concept of management by objectives in an attempt to depersonalize authority. Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell furthered Fayolian notions of the universality of management.

[28]Gross, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, 63, Part II, 64.

physical, human and information resources which could be viewed conceptually and man as an input-output system. Mathematical models and computer research often took the study of organizations to rather esoteric levels. Harold Koontz noted the diversity of approaches to administrative theory in his six-part classification:

1. The management process school "perceives management as a process of getting things done through and with people operating in organized groups." Often called the traditional or universalist approach, this school was fathered by Henri Fayol and sought to identify and analyze the functions of the manager in order to bridge management theory and practice.

2. The empirical school identified management as the study of experience and used case analyses as vehicles for teaching and drawing generalizations about management. It focused on the study of effective management techniques.

3. The human behavior school or human relations approach studied management as interpersonal relations since management involved getting things done through people.

4. The social system school saw management as a system of cultural interrelationships in which various groups interacted and cooperated.

5. The decision theory school concentrated on analyzing and understanding who made decisions and how they were made.

6. The mathematical school viewed management as a "system of mathematical models and processes." [29]

It was Koontz, who after summarizing these divergent approaches, applied to the field the apt label of the "management theory jungle." He explained that each of these areas had insights but none encompassed the entire area of

---

[29]Harold Koontz, "The Management Theory Jungle," Journal of the Academy of Management, 4, No. 3 (December, 1961), pp. 174-188.

analysis. Moreover, they are hampered by semantic entanglements on the uses and mearings of such terms as organization, administration, leadership, management, decision-making, etc.

In the struggle toward administration's own "unified field theory" the general systems model has held out the most hope recently for an overall theoretical framework. [30] Its basic premises are three in part:

1. The study of a whole, or organism
2. The idea that organisms tend to strive for a steady state or equilibrium
3. The openness of all systems (the organism is affected by its environment and it in turn affects the environment)

These elements seemed to offer a common denominator for a variety of disciplines and sciences. As one systems theorist nobly expressed it:

> . . . there is the hope that from systems theory we can draw a grand parallel from the differentiated segments of the management theory jungle and thereby achieve unity, harmony, and order in our understanding of man in organizations. [31]

Even with these promising developments, it still remains that the pursuit of an ANISA theory of administration is the challenge of leading oneself out of a jungle.

---

[30] Ludwig von Bertalanffy, the biologist, is credited with coining the expression "general systems theory." It is his tripartite model that is described.

[31] Wren, The Evolution . . . , p. 492.

CHAPTER THREE

A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATION FOR THE ANISA MODEL

INTRODUCTION

Although the tendency in formulating the administrative component for an education model might be to develop a shopping list of practices, structures, or do's and don't's for the would-be administrator, this would be premature and not very useful. It is necessary to lay out the underlying theory, for ultimately this is the basis for efficient action. Most behavior proceeds from some kind of theory. It is only that few people stop and think about the assumptions under which they operate. Even the administrators who insist on being called "practical men" always operate on a theory--a theory about people and a theory about organizations. Urwick chided the managers who looked at his theoretical research as impractical with the statement: "There is a very general feeling that to be hazy and opportunist about organization is in some mysterious way 'practical' . . . ."[1]

This chapter will elaborate a theoretical foundation for ANISA administration. It will be derived from ANISA's philosophy and its theory of development and grounded in the relevant thought and research of fields related to organizational behavior and administrative science. It is a skeleton to which flesh must be added through further research and actual practice. Consistent with the ANISA philosophy, the theory of administration

---

[1]Urwick, The Elements of Administration, p. 40.

seeks to use the best from the past in combination with distinctively new thinking that will make it suited to the radical transformation education must needs undergo.

THE NATURE OF MAN

At the center of administrative study is man. From the perspective of ANISA philosophy man is at the apex of creation. He has an infinitude of potentialities and an inherent purposefulness. Man possesses the capacities to be self-motivating and self-directing, to take hold of his destiny, and to be committed to continuous learning. This philosophy obviously runs counter to the assumptions about human nature that generated the authoritarian theory of administration which has prevailed for so long, a theory which held, consciously or unconsciously, that people are naturally dependent, immature, and indolent. The ANISA view of human nature, on the other hand, corresponds more to McGregor's Theory Y from which proceeds the so-called democratic theory of administration. It sees man as creative and responsible. And to this ANISA adds an important elaboration--man's creativity is perpetual, in that he can go on creating other potentialities.

Two key conditions of man's nature are his immanence and transcendence. Immanence refers to the accumulation of past experience. Transcendence is the capacity to bring that experience to bear on the present with an eye toward possibilities of the future. These aspects of man's nature are matrixes for his learning and development.

Though man is at the center of administrative thought, he is not there alone. Administration implies man in the context of an organization. The ANISA philosophy has implications for this relationship, too.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

The Purpose of Administration

The very concept of organization is based on the fact that man cannot fulfill all of his purposes or needs on his own. Edgar Schein offers a useful definition of an organization: the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal.[2] Like man, an organization is clearly purposive since it was established to carry out certain ends. Administration is the process of guiding an organization toward the fulfillment of that explicit purpose. It is characterized by the acquisition, allocation, and utilization of human efforts and physical resources.

The Latin root of administration means "to serve." Ideally it should serve man and facilitate the release of his potentialities and at the same time it should serve and release the potentialities of the organization of which man is a part. To do this administrators must understand the nature of organizations. In this regard the parallels to the individual are many. An organization

---

[2]Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 9.

may be made of numerous parts, functions, or departments, but they are not the organization. It is an entity to itself above and beyond the sum of these parts. Its development is based on interactions within and without, that is, it is modified through its internal and external environments.

Management and Leadership Defined

The conditions of immanence and transcendence are also operating in an organizational context. Administrators must understand the workings of an organization and its collective past. This is the factor of immanence. They must also have vision and look toward the future, which is transcendence. In our analysis of administration we will identify immanence with the "management dimension and transcendence with "leadership."[3] Administrative thought has for some time focused on management and leadership. There continue to be controversies on whether one is more important than the other, whether one is subsumed under the other, and so forth. In associating management and leadership with the concepts of immanence and transcendence, we are redefining them in the ANISA context. They are two critical and co-equal aspects of ANISA administration. Administration, which serves the release of an organization's potentialities toward the fulfillment of its goals, is the overarching process.

---

[3]This analysis is based on a paper by Dr. Daniel Jordan, ANISA Project Director. The paper, "Redefinition of Leadership and Its Implications for Educational Administration," was delivered to the Connecticut Council of School Executives on November 19, 1973 (New Haven, Conn.).

If we extend this thinking, we can see that management is characterized by the practice of utilizing existing structures or procedures in an organization to achieve goals; whereas leadership is characterized by an ability to change the established procedures, structures, and goals and initiate new ones. Peter Drucker aptly describes the complementary nature of leadership and management:

> Leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations. Nothing better prepares the ground for such leadership than a spirit of management that confirms in the day-to-day practices of the organization, strict principles of conduct and responsibility, high standards of performance, and respect for the individual and his work. [4]

Administration depends upon a balanced blend of these two functions. Without a transcendent view, management will be content with a ready-made solution rather than search for a new one. On the other hand, stability and change are as important for an organization's development as they are for an individual. Sound administration must consider these two pervasive characteristics of reality. If all power is in leadership, then everything is in a state of constant change. If the emphasis is totally on management, then the organization is unable to go beyond the status quo. [5]

---

[4]J. Donald Phillips, The Art of Delegation (Hillsdale, Michigan: Hillsdale College Press, 1964), p. 1.

[5]This conclusion is drawn from Jordan, "Redefinition of Leadership and Its Implications for Educational Administration," (New Haven, 1973).

THE BASIC ELEMENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

The Development of Learning Competence in an Organization

Maintaining a balance between order and change is a challenge of administrative practice. Underlying the process of administration, however, and more fundamental to the ends it "serves" is the capacity to translate the potentiality of an organization into actuality. ANISA calls this the achievement of learning competence and it is the overriding objective of the education model. In the same way that good teaching means guiding a child's interactions with his environment so that learning competence is gained, effective administration involves guiding an organization's interactions, internally and externally, so that it attains learning competence as a system. In the administration of ANISA, learning competence is the principal objective and, thus it is at the core of this theory.

How does learning competence relate to organizational life? In children, learning comes about through adaptive interactions with the environment. This process can apply also to an organization as it develops through experience, through changing internal and external circumstances. Like a child, an organization must "learn how to learn." This feature of adaptability is referred to by one writer as "the single most important determinant of organizational health."[6] It is its ability to actively deal with new experiences and events

---

[6]Bennis, Changing Organizations . . . , p. 46.

in the context of its purpose and what it already understands.

Marie Jahoda has said that a person's health depends upon his adaptability and his sense of identity. [7] The same may be said of organizations. Adaptability corresponds to the idea of continuous learning and identity relates to having an understanding of one's purpose and potentialities. The ANISA theory of individual development is imbued with this thinking and so must be its theory of administration.

An organization's adaptability or its ability to learn how to learn will determine its success at translating potentialities into actualities and its capacity to make "creative advance into novelty." These conditions are the touchstone of its organizational effectiveness. Clearly the means by which a group or organization's potentialities are released correlate to those by which an individual's are released. As in the case of an individual, the two processes fundamental to learning--adaptability on the part of an organization--are differentiation and integration. An organization's ability to carry out these two processes will determine its effectiveness in the achievement of learning competence. And the way that differentiation and integration are mediated in an organizational setting is through the process of problem-solving. [8]

---

[7]Marie Jahoda, Current Concepts of Positive Mental Health (New York: Basic Books, 1958).

[8]The word "problem" is derived from a French word, proballein, meaning to put or throw forward. The first definition of problem given by Webster's New Third International Dictionary is "a question raised or to be raised for inquiry, consideration, discussion, decision, or solution." It is in this broad context that the word problem-solving is employed in this dissertation.

An Organization's Capacity for Problem-solving

Problem-solving is both a process and an end. Broadly speaking what we mean by differentiation and integration in administration is the process of determining the differing demands of the institution and of the staff and integrating them in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling. Problem-solving is the vehicle for this. Implicit in problem-solving is an awareness of the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal. Furthermore, it is the key to releasing potentialities within an organization, the key to the resolution of diverse interests and, finally, the key to making choices that increase an organization's effectance.[9]

Problem-solving is the process of differentiating among a variety of alternatives that have been generated or interests that have emerged and integrating them into a new synthesis for the organization to act upon. It will operate in many contexts--long-range planning, daily management questions, conflict resolution--but this in a sense is the "content" and it is really secondary. It is mastery of the problem-solving process that will enable an organization to negotiate the circumstances of the present and the creative challenges of the future. In this lies its competence and organizational health.

The Group As a Creative Entity

We have mentioned that underlying ANISA's theory of man is a belief in his vast creative potential. The potentiality of individuals creates exponentially

---

[9]Robert White introduced the word "effectance" in a paper on competence and motivation. It refers to an organism's control over the environment. See White, "Motivation Reconsidered: The Challenge of Competence," Psychological Review, 66, No. 5 (1959), 297-333.

the potentiality of the organization. The release of these creative forces in an organization for particular purposes is the aim of administration and is made possible through the process of problem-solving. Let us examine now the conditions for creativity and how these are related.

It is true that no committee painted a Mona Lisa, but it is also true that no one person can operate a school or a factory. The creative process for the individual is not the same as the creative process for an organization. The social character of creativity in organizations derives from a fundamental principle in our administrative philosophy--that people in organizations are interdependent not independent. The question is not how to enhance personal creativity and freedom but to do so within the context of social interdependence. In organizations people work cooperatively to achieve goals; the context for creativity is basically a social one.

The appropriate medium, therefore, for the process of problem-solving is the group. Group problem-solving is the cornerstone principle of ANISA administration and is consistent with the Model's philosophy of the nature of man--a creative and responsible individual. It is also consistent with the nature of an organization and its developmental process and with the social character of creativity within an organization. Group problem-solving fosters an optimal creative climate inasmuch as it is an optimal condition for self-expression and individual freedom in social settings. Group problem-solving does not mean that there are no more leaders in an organization. It

does mean, though, that the distinction between "thinkers" and "doers" is not appropriate. It should erase the notion, for example, that master teachers "think" and aides "do." This separation implies that some (the decision-makers) can be free and creative, whereas others cannot. It wastes a vast amount of human talent.

The works of Mary Parker Follett called attention to the great creative forces operating within a group as well as to the sense of individual fulfillment that is found in the group discussion process. Norman Maier, who has probably done the most significant research in group problem-solving, confirms many of these concepts through empirical studies. His findings will be discussed later. Concerned as it is with the release of collective potentiality, ANISA administration begins with the premise that a whole group possesses more resources for decision-making than any of its sub-parts. Neither the leader, be it the principal, project director, or master teacher, nor any other members possess the optimal problem-solving assets potentially available in a group.

It is easy to see how problem-solving involves skills of differentiation and integration in the process of formulating plans or making decisions. Less obvious, but equally creative, is the use of group problem-solving in areas of administration traditionally thought of as "negative," such as conflict resolution. Diverse interests within a group can be accommodated and the freedom of some is not subordinated to the freedom of others, because problem-

solving in the sense proposed here does not represent a "gray" compromise. Proper participation can be a synthesis of two opposite sets of needs which integrates them both but represents neither of them. Indeed, free discussion followed by an integration of ideas makes the group solution more than a sum of the parts.

The Group As a Learning Environment

An organization that masters the process of problem-solving knows "how to learn" in the broad sense. This process also has implications for the learning of those members that participate. Group discussion methods require that participants express themselves and that there is a wide exploration of ideas. It is necessary that they differentiate between many shades of opinion; this contributes to the clarification of thinking. Learning through participation relates directly to the affective area. Participants influence each other emotionally and often the form of learning that takes place is attitudinal and not just intellectual. Another factor in the nature of learning which is promoted by discussion is the appearance of insight. Insight is an active process. It comes about when previously unrelated points of view or facts become integrated into a new perspective. Through the differentiation of opinions which occurs readily in group discussion, this process is often set in motion.

Group discussion promotes a particular kind of learning--the application of knowledge. A general discussion by itself does not furnish a mental set concerning which specific knowledge to use on a given occasion, as does an

assignment to work out a special problem. Practice in discussion aimed at solving problems makes people more resourceful in their thinking. Participation in group problem-solving promotes an active rather than a passive kind of learning. Such learning is not only more permanent but also more available. It incorporates skills and attitudes with intellectual content and hence makes such learning a part of the person's conduct and system of values.

Group Problem-solving: a Reality or a Utopia

The principle of group problem-solving and its relationship to organizational adaptability and competence implies a "mental revolution," as Taylor phrased it. Most of our society's institutions have been "authoritarian" in their approach to administration. At each step in the functioning of an organization the will of one man is the actuating force when a decision has to be taken. He speaks and others obey. The administrative philosophy of ANISA, as an approach to organizational development, cannot be achieved by putting a new front on an old structure. Basic attitudes and behaviors of people at all levels of the organization need to be changed and raised to a new level. This is what the ANISA program seeks of the people who work with its children. What it demands of the people who guide the course of its organization can be no less.

The ANISA theory of administration--that an organization will release its full potential and the potentialities of its members through continuous differentiations and integrations which the group problem-solving approach brings--is one full of optimism and bright prospects. The so-called conflict between

man and organization that human relationists focused on is not in essence a conflict. It does not require that one set of values be preserved while the other is destroyed. Nor is it one that demands a compromise in which both sides give up something. Its integrating approach is one that enables leaders and workers to bring human ingenuity and creativity to bear on the development of some new relationships.

For some, to put the group problem-solving approach at the center of an administrative model may seem utopian. But even the projection of utopias is viewed by experts as a rational change strategy. Designing the shape of the future is to envision a direction for planning and action in the present. As Robert Chin puts it: "If the image of a potential future is convincing and rationally persuasive to men in the present, the image may become part of the dynamics and motivation of present action."[10] If the theory on its own is not convincing, hopefully the supportive empirical evidence discussed in later chapters will be rationally persuasive enough to motivate action.

As adaptive, problem-solving, organic structures, organizations must be sensitive to the human problems of relationship and morale on the one hand and to the technical problems of meeting the system's task requirements as defined by its objectives on the other. In its struggle for learning competence,

---

[10]Robert Chin and Kenneth Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavior Sciences (Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1961) p. 32.

it must be recognized that an organization will be on a course similar to all psychological growth. The process will be slow and gradual; it may be arrested at any stage; and it is not an all or nothing process.

Two Conditions of the Theory

The philosophy of ANISA administration rests on two important principles, a scientific attitude and clarity of purpose. The scientific attitude, which we will call a spirit of inquiry, implies a loyalty to the investigation of truth as an important element in loyalty to the organization. This attitude has implications for many aspects of administration. It is essential to problem-solving as it minimizes the win-lose orientation of competitive groups and thereby reduces inter-group conflict; and it facilitates the adoption of new procedures and structures. It is part of the mental predisposition of good planning, a fundamental element of administration.

Clarity of purpose, key to an organization's sense of identity and, therefore, its "health," influences a variety of aspects of administration. The goal-setting process depends upon a clear sense of purpose. Leaders have the responsibility of articulating purpose and unifying staff around it. Clarity of purpose integrates efforts of an organization and contributes to good morale. It provides a rationale for decisions and a criterion for evaluation. Purpose affects many ramifications of administration and its role in these areas will be discussed in later sections.

A Recapitulation of the Theory

In recapitulating the major propositions of the ANISA theory of administration, it should be emphasized that they are derived from its philosophy of human nature and are consistent with its theories of development and learning. Briefly, the theory sets forth:

ANISA Philosophical Base-

1. Man is endowed with an infinitude of potentiality; the translation of potentiality into actuality is the essence of creativity.

2. Man can take a responsible hand in guiding the actualization of his own potentialities by projecting a future self-ideal which structures his becoming.

3. Learning is the key factor in the translation of man's psychological potentiality into actuality. It is defined as the ability to differentiate, integrate, and generalize experience. Learning competence is the conscious ability to do this and therefore is the primary means for actualizing one's own potentialities.

4. Man's nature is characterized by his capacity to accumulate experience (immanence) and to create a vision of the future which he brings to bear on the present (transcendence).

5. Man is a biologically-determined social being. He is interdependent and must be part of a group in order to survive; a high quality of survival requires cooperative group effort.

Theoretical Constructs Derived from the Philosophical Base-

1. Administration is the process of guiding an organization toward the fulfillment of its purpose. It should serve the release of man's potentialities and the potentialities of the organization. An organization's clear sense of purpose integrates the efforts of its members.

2. Leadership is associated with the capacity of transcendence; it refers to an administrator's ability to have a vision of the future and to anticipate its requirements. Leadership has the responsibility of articulating an organization's purpose and unifying staff around it.

3. The practice of management arises out of the capacity of immanence; it refers to an administrator's understanding of the workings of the organization and its collective past.

4. The effectiveness of an organization depends upon its ability to achieve learning competence--to learn how to learn.

5. Organizations, like individuals, develop learning competence through processes of differentiation and integration.

6. An organization's ability to differentiate and integrate is expressed through its problem-solving capacity.

7. In an organization the release of man's creative potential has a social character; it is linked to interactions within the group.

8. Group problem-solving is the optimum vehicle for an organization to fulfill its potentiality, to fulfill the potentiality of its members, and to make creative advances into novelty.

The Organization and Its Environment

One of our primary assumptions is that an organization is an adaptive entity that "learns" or becomes effective through interactions with its internal and external environments. We will identify four environments paralleling those to which an individual relates: physical, human, unknowns, and the organizational entity itself. Interactions within each area bring into play certain administrative concerns and responsibilities. These then relate to organizational competencies similar to the higher order competencies in a person: technological, moral, philosophical, and organizational effectance. (See following chart)

Environments	ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES	& COMPETENCIES
1. Physical	allocation execution	technological
2. Human	motivation communications supervision	moral
3. Unknowns	formulation of ideals forecasting, planning	philosophical
4. Self (organizational entity)	maintenance of equilibrium self-perpetuation	organizational effectance

low ——————→ high

Relevance of
Group Problem-solving

The components of administration--management and leadership--find differing degrees of expression in the various environments. Both functions overlap in the interactions within the human and self environments. However, in interacting with the physical environment the management approach dominates, while the leadership function applies most directly to an organization's relationship with the unknowns. The process of problem-solving is the dynamic tool for releasing potentialities of the organization in its interactions within these four environments. Another implication of the theory which the chart suggests is that the relevance and impact of the application of group problem-solving increases as you proceed from environment one to

four. The areas of administrative competence outlined in the chart will be examined in more detail in subsequent sections of this chapter.

THE ANISA THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Introduction

The study of leadership has always had great relevance for society. The effective functioning of social systems from the local PTA to the U. S. A. is widely assumed to be dependent on the quality of their leadership. Obviously many factors influence organizational effectiveness but the critical role leadership plays cannot be denied. In the ANISA theory leadership functions account for one-half of the administrative picture. Leadership is identified with man's transcendent capacity in that it is visionary and raises an organization and its members beyond the present circumstances or moment. Let us briefly review some of the principal aspects of leadership study and research, recognizing that ultimately leadership in ANISA administration must be an expression of its philosophy. It has been shown that whatever the nature of particular philosophies or ideologies, they seek out a certain type of leadership which is in harmony and compatible with their basic attitudes toward man and organization.

Leadership by Personality

Early work on leadership was based on the premise that leadership is a personality trait that is distributed among people in varying degrees. Comprising

it would be a constellation of qualities without which one could really not be an effective leader. One of the most notable approaches to leadership qualities was made by Ordway Tead in his work The Art of Leadership in 1935. In it he lists ten qualities that appear to be of paramount importance to the function of leadership: (1) physical and nervous energy (2) a sense of purpose and direction (3) enthusiasm (4) friendliness and affection (5) integrity (6) technical mastery (7) decisiveness (8) intelligence (9) teaching skill (10) faith. Other writers in the 1930's came up with their own list of necessary qualities, some points differed, many were the same, but their whole approach to leadership continued to be a study of personality traits. The notion that leadership is a quality that individuals possess is still common in popular parlance. The formal study of leadership, however, moved away from this thinking. One might say it became more concerned not with who "had" leadership, but with who "showed" leadership.

This redirection in leadership approaches resulted from numerous empirical studies that failed to find any consistent pattern of traits which characterized leaders. From 1945-1948 Ralph Stogdill carried out extensive research on the so-called "personality factors" associated with leadership. Through a complex of case studies, interviews, rating schemes, and observation he concluded that "leadership is a relationship that exists between persons in a social situation."[11] Stogdill analyzed twenty-four characteristics (for

---

[11]Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," The Journal of Psychology, 25 (1948), pp. 35-71.

example, age, intelligence, insight, appearance, dominance, etc.) but for most found no definite correlation to effective role performance. He concluded that if there are general traits which characterize leaders, the patterns of such traits are likely to vary with the leadership requirements of different situations. Specifically he stated:

> The pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers . . . . It becomes clear that an adequate analysis of leadership involves not only a study of leaders but also of situations. [12]

Leadership by Behavior

The focus shifted from a study of personal dispositions to a study of organizational roles and relationships. Researchers supported the theory that the personal construct required for effective role performance in organization "X" differed markedly from that in organization "Y." The field became dominated then (and still is) by behaviorists who focus upon observed behavior rather than upon a posited capacity inferred from this behavior. They make no presuppositions about a one-to-one relationship between leader behavior and any underlying capacity or potentiality that presumably determines this behavior. By the same token, no a priori assumptions are made that the leader behavior which a leader exhibits in one group situation will be manifested in other group situations. They analyze behavior demonstrated in a certain situation and its effect on that situation alone.

---

[12]Stogdill, The Journal of Psychology, 25 (1948), pp. 64-65.

Some of the most significant behaviorist research on leadership was carried on at Ohio State University in the 1950's. Through the use of questionnaires and extensive interviews John Hemphill and his associates determined that leadership had two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration.[13] Initiating structure refers to introducing into an organization new ways of doing things, new structures for relationships with workers. Consideration applies to behavior that is characterized by warmth, friendship, respect and concern for members of the organization. In correlating the two dimensions the studies revealed that an effective leader can initiate structure without sacrificing consideration. They also pointed out that an excess of one type of behavior does not compensate for a lack of the other.

The more recent research of Vroom and Yetton, which takes Hemphill's findings a step further, emphasizes a multidimensional representation of leader behavior. Looking at the conclusions at Ohio State with their classifications of "consideration" and "initiating structure," they concluded that the conception of leadership style as a fixed method of behavior was inadequate. Its greatest shortcoming was that it summarized in one or two dimensions the multitude of ways in which leaders can differ from one another, requiring one to treat as equivalent, behaviors that are clearly different and

---

[13]John K. Hemphill, "Leadership Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputation of College Departments," The Journal of Educational Psychology, 46, No. 7 (November, 1955), pp. 385-388.

may have different effects. They cite the example that the behavior of "letting others do the work in the way they think best" contributes to a low score on initiating structure, though it may be a highly functional leadership method in some situations and highly dysfunctional in others. Consequently Vroom and Yetton assert that "expressing leader behavior is a function of both person and situational variables" and is "consistent with Lewin's classic dictum that behavior is a function of the person and the environment."[14]

ANISA Leadership--The Philosophical Matrix

Although the research on leader behavior is convincing that leadership is not solely a property of the individual, there are other considerations that enter in. Those that argue against trait leadership say that administrators are made not born. True as this may be, it does not tell the whole story. A man's basic philosophy about people and organizations is deep-seated and fundamentally a part of his personality. What lies behind the behavior is critical because that is what determines it. The behaviorist approach, with its disregard of motives or capacities, though a useful tool of analysis, does not provide much direction for the shaping of leadership according to needs of an evolving social order. In the final analysis it is impossible to define "good leaders" without reference to a system of values.

---

[14]Victor H. Vroom and Phillip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision-making (University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973), p. 122.

Consequently good leadership in ANISA must be studied in relationship to the variables of the (1) characteristics of the leader, (2) the needs and attitudes of the members in the organization, and (3) the character of the organization itself. Furthermore, a philosophical background is needed to give meaning to the data. Philosophical propositions about ANISA leadership give direction to our scientific inquiry and take the mounds of behaviorist observations out of the vacuum.

ANISA leadership functions within an administrative philosophical matrix that involves purpose, values, and faith. Purpose relates to leader behaviors that foster an environment which maximizes opportunities for all concerned to become creative and productive. This is an extension of the objective of releasing the potentialities of the organization and the individual within it. Values refer to behaviors connected to the proposition that group problem-solving is the surest avenue for organizational development. It assumes that the leadership has accepted and is committed to this proposition, that it is a jointly held value. The principle of faith--an underlying factor of leadership's transcendent character--applies to behavior which envisions possibilities and ideals yet unfulfilled and translates them into reality. In describing this characteristic of leadership Mary Parker Follett wrote: "And the most successful leader of all is one who sees another picture not yet actualized. He sees the things which belong in his present picture but which are not yet there."[15]

---

[15]L. Urwick and Henry Metcalf (eds.), Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett (New York: Harper & Bros., 1940), p. 279.

Purpose

The processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships within the organization, each member will in light of his background and expectations, view the experience as supportive, and one that builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance. For leadership to accomplish this, it is not a matter of "doing something to" the individual. It is, instead, a matter of freeing him for normal development, removing obstacles so he can move forward. Such obstacles might be interpersonal conflicts or unchallenging work assignments. Associated with this principle is the fact that people react positively to opportunities for expressing their natural human attributes and talents and they react negatively to deprivation of such opportunities.

Values

Group problem-solving and participation constitute the cornerstone of the organization's value system. This is the second critical area in which ANISA leadership operates. No mere book of techniques can equip a leader to be effective in this regard. It requires a deeply rooted attitudinal orientation, associated with seeing oneself as a helper, facilitator, and resource person. By helping a group move toward its goals in concert with organizational goals, he becomes an important and influential member of his group. The "membership" approach to effective group leadership obviously suggests a wholly different mode of administrative behavior than prevailing concepts describe. This is leadership by influence. It is a relationship founded on the

acts of assisting other people in fulfilling needs and attaining goals in an ongoing process. The leader is able to influence because "they" have voluntarily granted him this influence. As Maier puts it, "For every successful act of leadership there must be a corresponding act of followership."[16] This parallels Barnard's and Follett's theories that leadership and authority are in great degree based upon the willing "assent" of others. This discussion does not imply that ANISA leadership is not characterized by any superior-subordinate relationships. It just describes the posture of leadership in promoting the value of participation and the group problem-solving method. It must foster a climate where "meaningful participation, mutual consideration of needs and goals, permissive listening and acceptant attitudes are more than words."[17] In addition, studies have shown that the extent to which a leader reveals himself to be one who encourages teachers to be less dependent on him and more interdependent on each other, the higher the satisfaction in the group.[18] Through skillfully negotiating the group participation processes in an organization a leader can fulfill the classic condition which Fayol had formerly associated

---

[16]Norman R. F. Maier and John J. Hayes, Creative Management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 17.

[17]Norman R. F. Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), p. 47.

[18]Donald Moyer, "Leadership that Teachers Want," Midwest Administrative Center Bulletin, III, No. 7 (March, 1955), p. 3.

only with the charismatic power of leadership; that is, "he becomes the fulcrum which gives leverage to the collective will."[19]

Faith

The dynamics of faith in leadership relate not only to the realm of the possible but to the real and the actual. In a sense the well-known adage left by St. Augustine applies here: "Faith is to believe what we do not see; and the reward of this faith is to see what we believe." Faith is an active ingredient in the development of staff, for seldom does a person rise above the faith that another has in him. Leaders who operate from this principle supply us with new powers and urge us to new and unattempted performance. Administration based on faith will lead to the unattempted in another sense. It will foster and guide innovation, which is essential to an organization's progress and development.

The idea of confidence about the unknown and a vision for the future is also a credible foundation for the planning process. All the charts, projections, and rational forecasting models can make no guarantee about an organization's success in planning. William Given, an administrator turned writer, states that there is a certain "sixth sense" that some administrators have which seems to consist of an instinct that perceives future requirements and opportunities and combines with it a sense of timing that make these administrators immeasurably effective over others.

---

[19]Raymond E. Callahan and H. Warren Button, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, 63, Part II, 89.

The idea of articulating principles of leadership with the ANISA philosophy is important not merely for potential leaders. Studies in Illinois of teachers and administrators indicated that groups in which there is a high amount of agreement or homogeneity as to the kind of leadership the members desire to work with show a higher level of group satisfaction than in others characterized by less agreement.[20] A concept of leadership needs to be shared by an entire organization. Followers' attitudes and expectations in a leadership situation are of crucial importance in determining the success of the activity and, in turn, measuring the individual and group satisfaction derived by the persons interacting in the situation.

THE ANISA THEORY OF MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Management and leadership have been incorporated into this theoretical model as the two co-equal components of administration. They are an expression of the fundamental capacities of human nature--immanence and transcendence. This dichotomy appears distinct for the philosophical framework, but it is less clear in actual operation. This is because in the process of administration the functions of leadership and management are very inter-

---

[20]Moyer, Midwest Administrative Center Bulletin, III, No. 7, 2.

related and at times merge. For example, does the motivation of workers relate more to leadership's role in assisting individuals in their desire for self-actualization or to the management responsibility of effectively getting things done through people?

Effective leadership, we have said, is grounded in good management practice. Management is concerned with utilizing an organization's experience and existing structures and relationships to effectively achieve goals; it is associated with day-to-day operations. Good administration generally depends upon an administrator's conception of what his job is, but always in the context of what administration is and of what his convictions and beliefs about human beings are. This, then, is the approach we will use in our investigation of management. After the first order principles are outlined and elaborated, the methods of the management art can more properly be discussed. It should be emphasized that management is no stepsister to the leadership function. Both are indispensable capacities. Woodrow Wilson, in commenting on the role of the philosophical leaders of government wrote: "It is now getting harder to run a constitution than to frame one." [21]

ANISA Management--The Philosophical Matrix

Purpose and order are the two primary elements of the administrative philosophical matrix in which management operates. Purpose is a higher order

---

[21]Woodrow Wilson, "The Study of Administration," Political Science Quarterly, II (June, 1887), pp. 197-222.

principle for management because, as in the case of leadership, management is interested in releasing the potentialities of man and the organization, with a special view toward the execution of an organization's tasks and the fulfillment of its objectives. The functioning of management purpose is expressed through the responsibilities for motivation and is exercised through the processes of delegation and group problem-solving. The other higher level principle for management is order. According to this theory, order is viewed in relation to the question of authority and is carried out through the functional processes of organizing and controlling.

Purpose and Motivation

To get one's own work done is the task of a responsible person. To get work done through other people is the art of management. Carrying cooperative tasks through to completion requires the creation of conditions for genuine collaboration throughout an organization. "To create such conditions," Douglas McGregor wrote, "is to establish a way of life." [22] Managers will increase the utilization of human potential in an organizational setting only as they succeed in creating conditions that generate this meaningful way of life. [23] The question then is what motivates a member to share in the organizational life? What constitutes the "meaning" that gives him the motivation to enter and remain in the system?

---

[22]Bennis, Schein, and McGregor (eds.), Leadership and Motivation . . . , p. 130.

[23]"Creating conditions" might be thought of in ANISA terminology as arranging environments.

Part of the dramatic change in management thought over the last twenty-five years has been a shift away from the idea that motivation on command is practicable. The current perspective is that employees, by and large, are successfully managed only by their own consent. Workers are motivated if the manager has had the ability to create the kind of situation wherein the employee has the opportunity to satisfy his needs. In such an environment the employees see as a path to their own satisfaction and achievement behaviors which the organization values. This is the challenge. What is the approach? Firstly, managers in the strict sense do not motivate people. Man by nature is motivated. In McGregor's words:

> He is an organic system, not a mechanical one. His behavior is influenced by relationships between his characteristics as an organic system and the environment. Creating these relationships is a matter of releasing his energy in certain ways rather than others. [24]

Man's energy is released in satisfaction of certain drives or in pursuit of certain needs. According to Maslow, man's needs are organized along a priority scale beginning with physiological, safety, to social (acceptance, affiliation), ego (self-esteem), and finally self-realization. Experience has shown that when people suffer deprivation of their lower level needs, their energies are diverted in the struggle to satisfy those needs and the needs for

---

[24]Bennis, Schein, and McGregor (eds.), Leadership and Motivation . . . , p. 225.

[25]Though the criticisms of Maslow's theory mentioned earlier seem valid, they do not directly affect the analysis given here.

self-realization often remain dormant. Moreover, according to Maslow, a satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior. Management has the responsibility of sustaining the worker's motivating impulse by creating conditions so he can strive to fulfill his higher order needs. Meeting needs at physiological and safety levels are the most obvious aspect of security fulfillment. Promoting social security will require efforts on the part of management to foster informal group relations within an organization, to minimize interpersonal conflicts, to encourage a team operation, etc. A member motivated in this area will be more socially productive. If management is to draw forth the true creative potential within an organization, however, it must sustain a motivating environment in the area of self-realization. Maslow said that a satisfied need is no longer a motivator. There is no hazard, though, that with "all needs met" man's motivational drive has been quelled because the struggle for self-realization does not have a terminal point. With man's capacity to create more potentialities and to perpetually make creative advances, the self-realization need always exists--is a motivational constant. If lower needs are generally met and management provides the suitable milieu for a worker's interactions in pursuit of this higher need, an organization's workers will always be highly motivated.

Creating a Motivating Environment. Two principle conditions that would make up the motivating environment for workers to fulfill desires for self-realization can be set forth. These include (1) participation and (2) responsibility.

Participation. Members in an organization have the natural urge to contribute their ideas to the solution of a problem. If one cannot put in his "two cents worth" within the formal organization, the process takes place outside this structure and instead of being part of a creative struggle it can become part of a reactive struggle. Genuine collaboration, the main feature of the "way of life" referred to, can emerge only when the mechanisms of true participation become an established part of organizational practice. The condition of participation is fulfilled to a large degree by the organization's commitment to group problem-solving.

The increase in job satisfaction through group problem-solving can be clearly understood. It is a function of the recognition given to the group, the opportunity for harmonious interactions, the increased opportunity to solve problems and make contributions, and the chance to learn and grow. The first point fulfills the need recognized by Elton Mayo at the Hawthorne plant; the second answers the concern of the human relations movement, while the last two correspond to the contemporary emphasis on "humanistic self-fulfillment." The arguments for group problem-solving and participation point up its motivational advantages. Since it forms such a crucial part of the proposed ANISA administrative framework, group problem-solving will be discussed in other contexts subsequently.

Responsibility. The condition of responsibility means providing staff members with the opportunity to assume responsibility as they become ready

for it. The willingness to assume responsibility is a maturational phenomenon. Management can fulfill the condition of responsibility through a commitment to delegation.

It seems that nothing produees responsible behavior as effectively as being given a position or assignment of responsibility. J. D. Phillips in his book on the subjeet of delegation ealled it a "dignifying" experience and stated that "to help another faee an assignment, resolve, and live with his decision offers the best kind of opportunity for development and growth."[26] Not only does delegation give more people greater opportunity to give more of themselves for the greater good of the organization, but it has other organizational benefits that might be mentioned. Delegation ereates a greater sense of partnership between levels of an organization; it develops additional informed staff members who in turn may build better centers of harmony and support within an organization; it spreads supervision; finally, it often reduces distance of communication.

For a manager, the function of delegation is never a facile one. In the same way a teacher must know the developmental level of a child and prescribe the appropriate experienee in the appropriate manner, an administrator must employ the same kind of knowledge and skill. A supervisor must ascertain if the worker has the ability to assume a particular responsibility. This means not just the teehnieal skill but the human relationships involved as well.

---

[26]Phillips, The Art of Delegation, p. 2.

Furthermore, the desire and readiness to accept the new responsibility must be there. It is also necessary to assess whether there is the need for any special training or education before the assignment. Like the teacher, the administrator must know if certain learning experiences have taken place prior to presenting this new challenge. What to delegate depends upon the nature of the organization, its purpose, and the personnel. This question extends us more into the area of "management hints" than is the intention of this paper, but I will include a brief summary of the points Phillips makes in this regard. Delegate, he advises: (1) anything which others can do as well; (2) everything that others can be trained to do; (3) the search for facts that bear upon your immediate need; and (4) that which is reducible to clear-cut assignments.[27] And ultimately, as in all learning situations, the greatest payment for a difficult task completed is the opportunity of accepting still greater challenges.

Order and Authority

Order in an organization has traditionally been maintained through the authority structure. As theorists generally agree, authority can be formal (conferred by the structure of the organization itself), technical (derived from special knowledge or expertise), or personal (depending upon popularity, charisma, or seniority). Managerial authority, however, is not the only

---

[27] Ibid., p. 7.

source of order in an organization. Believing as we do that broader participation and responsibility are necessary for the fulfillment of an organization's purpose, we would maintain that collaboration and joint commitment to goals would also contribute to maintenance of order. In this light it seems more accurate to characterize authority--formal, technical, or personal--as the ability to require actions of others, an ability that has greater bearing on certain technical functions such as organizing and controlling than on establishing order per se. Yet these functions are at the core of management's role.

Organizing. Of all of management's responsibilities organizing occupies most of its time. For incorporated under this process are all the stages of preparation, allocation, and execution. The first level of organizing is a kind of planning, though it deals with already agreed upon goals, and not the setting of new goals. It involves developing "work maps" that show how the tasks involved will be accomplished. [28] The next step is to bring together the human and physical resources necessary to accomplish the goals. If the environment has been so organized to provide conditions of participation and responsibility, the tasks will be performed effectively and in a unified way. The function of organizing contributes to maintaining order because in order are implied harmony and coordination.

---

[28]Hersey and Blanchard, Management of . . . , p. 3. Hersey and Blanchard use the phrase "work maps" in their analysis of management functions.

Controlling. Controlling in the most basic terms refers to seeing that work is done and done well. Although the word itself sounds highly authoritarian in character, it is an indispensable function and part of good administration. Underlying it is a commitment to improved performance. In the same way that delegation and development accomplish this through assigning individuals to jobs and training them to increase their competence, controlling achieves this through marking out the boundaries of acceptable standards and levels of performance. Controlling is an act of follow-up that first requires a feedback of results. It operates in a context common to much learning theory. As Douglas McGregor explains it:

> Given a clear knowledge of what is expected of him the subordinate requires the unqualified support of his superiors so long as his actions are consistent with those policies and are taken with the limits of his responsibility. Only then can he have the security and confidence that will enable him to do his job well.
>
> At the same time the subordinate must know that failure to live up to his responsibilities, or to observe the rules that are established, will result in punishment. Every individual has many wants that conflict with the demands of the job. If he knows that breaking the rules to satisfy these wants will almost inevitably result in the frustration of his vital long-range needs, self-discipline will be less difficult. [29]

For the members of an organization, controlling can be part of the learning process, though it maybe somewhat mechanical in nature. For the administration, it is the guarantee that tasks are being carried out to completion.

---

[29]Bennis, Schein, and McGregor (eds.), Leadership and Motivation . . . , p. 58.

A THEORY OF COMMUNICATIONS

Bridging the fulfillment of both of the principles, purpose and order, and facilitating the implementation of the functional areas related to them, is the process of communications. Technically "communication" involves the transmission of intelligence from one person to another but in organizational life it is more than that. It represents an hour-by-hour relationship. An organization's effectiveness, efficiency, and cohesiveness can depend on its ability to foster an unrestricted flow of communications.

The magnitude of the communications issue is strikingly demonstrated by research studies of professionals in a business enterprise.[30] After a careful analysis of every minute of their working days it was found that 80% of their time was spend in conversation and nearly the rest in writing or reading letters, memoranda, and reports. The communications process is probably the chief property of the administrative milieu. It is through communications that a member understands what the objectives of the organization are, what his work is, and what expectations are held for both. The success of cooperation, of establishing a "collaborative climate" is related to the ability of those cooperating to communicate with one another.

---

[30]Tom Burns, "The Directions of Activity and Communication in a Departmental Executive Group," Human Relations, VII, No. 1 (July, 1954), p. 73.

With an understanding of the importance the communications process plays in an organization, what principles can we set forth to guide ANISA administration in this respect? It should be noted at the outset that probably more research has been done in the area of communications than in any other aspect of organizational behavior. This is mainly because it has long been a topic of interest to social psychologists and their research has had great application to the study of organizations, even if that was not their specific intention. In most large organizations face-to-face communications of individuals or groups is not always possible. Therefore, it becomes important to consider the existing communication network and its consequences for group functioning. A review of the relevant literature yields the following basic conclusions:

1. A person's feeling of participation is related to his position in a communications network.

2. Overcentralized communications are very effective in implementing a given task but relatively inflexible in developing new or innovative solutions.

3. Information is lost and distorted very rapidly as it travels through a number of separate communication links. [31]

These three points have some clear implications for administrative practice.

The first point has to do with centrality of position in a network of communications. In Lewin, Lippit, and White's studies in 1939 and much later

---

[31] Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 94.

with Trow (1957) it was found that centrality produces high morale--not just because it means greater access to communications channels but because this gives one an input potential and a certain ability to make independent decision. If an administrator continually shares information with only an "inner core" of people, other staff members, whether they are the department heads, the rest of the teachers, or whatever, will tend to feel more and more on the periphery of the organization. This is not to say that some information should not be confined to certain levels of an organization. Rather it refers to an attitude toward a process and a structure that reflects that attitude. The flow of information has great effect on the integrity of working relationships. Restricted information flow weakens the organization because people ultimately find or create their own avenues of communication and in many cases these are dysfunctional.

The second point, which has to do with over-centralized communications, relates to the issue of centrality also. More decentralization in communications will allow for a diversity of input, which will in turn give members that sense of participation that eliminates their feeling of being peripheral and builds morale.

The third point, which refers to information distortion, is one we have all experienced in playing the popular "telephone" game. For an administrator to limit himself to a highly vertical, down the ladder communications system will increase the distortion hazard. Both observations two and three would

point to the value of group structures as the vehicles for information sharing.

In 1948-49 when Bavelas did extensive studies to see if one communication pattern (chain, circle, wheel, or y) gave better performance than another, it seemed that the efficiency of a structure depended on the characteristics of a task. The information to be communicated may involve straightforward data presentation, questions and answers, or problem-solving. The nature of the information may be of fact or of sentiment. The object is to find the mode appropriate to the task and whenever possible to broaden access to information and to utilize group situations as a mechanism.

Another benefit of the group setting for sharing of information is that it tends to neutralize the power factor. In hierarchical relationships differences in status and in power within an organization surround individuals with communications obstacles. If the exchange of information is done customarily in groups, then the feeling of "group membership" dilutes the existing status differentials of the individuals within the group that normally inhibit communications. Furthermore, it has been shown that the flow of information from subordinates to superiors (upwards) is often not accurate or creative because subordinates are reluctant to "stick out their neck," that is, they feel it may result in an unfavorable reaction from the supervisor. [32] If groups have been characterized by an atmosphere of openness and trust, this setting might also minimize the problems in upwards communications.

---

[32]Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions . . . , p. 40.

Good communications also contribute to the learning process of the members of an organization. People need information in order to perform their jobs well. They also need feedback about their work. Individuals learn most rapidly and to the highest level of proficiency under direct feedback. With little or confusing feedback the person may still learn but more slowly and to a lower degree of proficiency. When an administrator fails to give his reaction to someone's "output" directly and clearly, the learning process is impeded.

This feedback process in an organization can be viewed as part of a communications loop. Usually when an administrator initiates a communication, it is to ask someone to do something, to carry out some action. The consequences of this action should be communicated to the administrator so he knows whether the goal was attained; and the administrator should complete the loop by letting his subordinate know how he did. A recognition of the importance of following through a communications loop will help to maintain good morale.

This discussion on the object and structure of communications within an organization leads to some general theoretical constructs for the administration of the ANISA Model:

1. Channels of communications should be widespread and open in order to foster creativity and cohesion.

2. Communication modes should be compatible with the content and the task.

3. Communications should support the learning process.

4. An effective communications pattern can be viewed as a feedback loop.

5. The group discussion framework can be a valuable vehicle for effective communications within an organization.

A CONCEPT OF MORALE

We have discussed at length the elements necessary to create a motivating environment in an organization. Related to this is the whole subject of morale. Morale cannot be reasoned, ordered, or persuaded into existence. It can be created only by introducing certain conditions favorable to its development. Getzels and Guba identified three components of morale and postulated that to the extent these were present in an organization, there was good morale. The components they identified were belongingness, rationality and identification. [33]

Belongingness refers to the anticipation on the part of a staff member that he will achieve satisfaction and recognition within the organizational framework. Rationality is the extent to which expectations placed upon a role are logical and appropriate to the achievement of goals. Finally identification refers to the degree to which the staff member is able to integrate the goals and actions of the organization with his own needs and values.

---

[33] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review, LXV, No. 4 (Winter, 1957), 438.

Getzels and Guba's analysis is useful, but a simpler description of the concept can be given through an analogy. A living organism must maintain a certain balance in its system for proper functioning. It must intake elements and then build up internal structures. The need to balance certain functions and processes are part of maintaining its equilibrium as a system. An organization strives after a similar balance. It must constantly integrate the needs of the people with the requirements of the tasks. In this way it maintains its equilibrium. The by-product of maintaining the proper balance in an organism is good health. In an organization, the by-product is good morale.

ADMINISTRATION--PROCESS OR CONTENT

Part of the intentions of traditional theorists in identifying fundamental principles was to set forth the universality of the administrative process. Corollary to this was the concept that a manager skilled in these universal processes could move from one field to another with ease and effectiveness. Continued study of administrative responsibilities did point repeatedly to certain managerial processes, but when this was coupled with later research in organizational behavior, it seemed to indicate that the notion of a "super-administrator" who could go from the field of health to business, or from education to the military was too simplistic. Every organization is a complex of relationships and factors involving its own particular goals, tasks,

climate, external demands, specialized bodies of knowledge, and so forth. Administrators must negotiate a system and not just carry out a laundry list of activities. It is unrealistic to assume that the President of General Motors could just as easily occupy the position of the Superintendent of the New York City school system.

Not only is an organization too complex to view just from the perspective of a few basic managerial functions, but it seems clear that the skills of management (for example, planning, organizing) cannot exist in a vacuum. Their successful exercise depends largely on a knowledge of what is being planned or organized (content). One often needs an immense grasp of the details as well as of the broader questions. The manager can turn to the specialist but he has to understand the "science" of the field in order to effectively communicate with him.

It is equally hazardous to think that a very intelligent specialist in a particular field will be an ideal administrator. People of this type can turn out to be ineffective when placed in positions of increased responsibility, such as supervision, because of their failings in the area of social relationships. For example, it is one thing to follow one's own work through to completion, but to get others to complete theirs is another. In addition, the "specialist" in the field may lack a sufficiently broad perspective to orchestrate the internal objectives and external demands needed to maintain organizational equilibrium. The importance of having a knowledge and grasp of a particular field does not

negate the fact that administrative success will tend to depend more on conceptual and human skills rather than on an overabundance of technical skill. Organizations are made up of people, and an administrator must be perceptive in understanding them and effective in communicating with them. When a young engineer asked Andrew Carnegie what he should study to advance in the steel industry, Carnegie replied: "Study people, my friend, not metals." Proficiency in the conceptual area means an ability to see the enterprise as a whole, to visualize relationships, and to act in a way which advances the overall welfare of the organization. As Chester Barnard summarized it, " . . . the essential aspect of the (executive) process is the sensing of the organization as a whole and the total situation relevant to it." [34]

What, then, would this discussion suggest for ANISA administration? A balance between both content and process will be essential. Administrators in the ANISA Program will have to have a background in child development and in the theory of the Model and its application, combined with proficiency in the human, conceptual, and process skills demanded of a good administrator. For example, a master teacher that displayed a sense of organizational relationships, was effective in supervision, and visionary in perspective might be a suitable candidate for an administrator. However, this transfer is not an automatic one. Years solely of classroom experience may not have provided

---

[34]Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, p. 235.

a master teacher with either the experiences or the broader perspective needed to manage and facilitate the interactions of a total organization.

An example from the ANISA literature is worth noting in relation to this discussion. One concern of the Model's authors has been that decisions should be made where knowledge exists. Since ANISA is in the business of learning, those most knowledgeable about learning, namely master teachers, should be principal decision-makers. The point of this argument is that decision-making has traditionally been a role of administration and administrators may not be the "learning experts." In the terms of this discussion's analysis, their conclusion represents an emphasis on the "content" aspect. The seeming fallacy in this is that it ignores the fact that the learning process in the school and decisions related to it will be affected by a multitude of considerations--relations among staff members, coordination of support services, demands from the external environment (local system, state, etc.), interactions with parents and so forth. It is very likely that a master teacher will not be the most adept at administering in this broader context (a process consideration). It is also clear that knowledge does not exist with one person. For these reasons and others, the exercise of ANISA administration needs to be based on a combination of "content" background and "process" skills.

CHAPTER FOUR

GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING
CORNERSTONE OF THE ANISA ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

INTRODUCTION

Earlier in this dissertation we set forth the theory that group problem-solving is the key factor in effective ANISA administration. Upon it depends the release of the organization's potentialities and the maintenance of its health. Through problem-solving an organization makes the continuous differentiations and integrations necessary to the achievement of learning competence. Achieving learning competence, as we have said, means learning how to learn. In this context it means that the organization develops the capacity to handle any situation that confronts it, externally or internally. The actualization of the potentialities of the organization, and its members as well, depends upon the attainment of this competence.

The "group" has been proposed as the best vehicle for problem-solving from an ANISA point of view. The concept of cooperation is compatible with ANISA's philosophy of man and an essential proposition in the theory of development. It is consistent with the importance placed on participation in learning. Moreover, the group is a primary arena for the creative process in organizational life. Group problem-solving in the ANISA organizational framework would also have as its by-products good communications and morale. These too are related to the attainment of learning competence.

With these general points made in earlier sections of the dissertation, we now will elaborate more fully upon the rationale and practice of group problem-

solving, since it occupies such a central position in this theory of administration. The philosophical base for this practice is derived chiefly from the work of Mary Parker Follett. The material on the operation and efficacy of the group problem-solving approach is drawn from the extensive empirical research carried out by Norman Maier.

A PHILOSOPHICAL BASE
MARY PARKER FOLLETT'S THEORY OF INTEGRATION

The Background of Mary Parker Follett

Although the early decades of this century still saw the heyday of scientific management in administrative thought, there was a figure who was also committed to a scientific approach and had insights into human organization more profound and more fundamental than most theorists who either preceded or followed her. This was Mary Parker Follett. Not only did her thinking lay a foundation for subsequent study in human relations and group dynamics but her conclusions were truly visionary and are still being borne out in contemporary analysis of organizational behavior and of human intercourse. To many Mary Follett is regarded as a political philosopher but, in fact, she devoted her lifetime to searching for the principles of organization which would ensure a stable foundation for the steady, ordered progress of human development. Though she began with the study of government, she turned much of her attention later to the practices of industry. She felt that the underlying principles

of organization were the same no matter what purpose the organization served. She said that her concepts could be applied to business, government, education or the church.

Mary Follett was born in Boston in 1868. Most of her writing was done between the years of 1920-1933. Philosophers and social scientists both in this country and abroad were continually impressed with her keen insight and originality of thought. Henry Metcalf and Luther Urwick, the noted administration theorists who compiled Mary Follett's papers into the book Dynamic Administration, wrote this of the woman whom they said they were so privileged to have known:

> . . . she was a person of universal mind and viewpoint, rounded culture, combining an interest in religion, music, painting, nature, history, and travel with her consuming lifetime absorption in discovering the basic principles which put into operation in the government of city, state, and nation, as well as of industry, would result in a socio-economic-political order in which every man would have the opportunity to give expression to his God-given right to live and grow and develop to the utmost of his capacity. [1]

Mary Follett set out not to improve the practice of a particular company or even American industry as a whole. Her sights were much larger, her faith much greater. She saw "conscious organization as the great spiritual task of man."[2] The fact that her principles for building and maintaining dynamic yet harmonious human relations found application in different fields convinced her that she was "moving in harmony with the deeper

---

[1]Metcalf and Urwick (eds.), Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 20.

[2]Ibid., p. 144.

and more vital forces of human progress."[3] Her concepts were grounded in everyday experiences with the manifold aspects of the administration of human affairs but her perspectives were not circumscribed by these involvements. She always brought to them the larger view. She believed that "to free the energies of the human spirit is the high potentiality of all human association" and that organizations offered an opportunity for the "creation of spiritual values, in the possibilities of those intimate human interweavings through which all development of man must come."[4]

The importance of those human interweavings led Mary Follett to study the individual within groups and interactions between groups. "The world today," she wrote, "needs new relationships among its groups."[5] She saw this as the fundamental challenge, not just in the local shop, but to all levels of human affairs. In 1920 she wrote:

> . . . I believe that the end of the wars of nations and of the war between labour and capital will come in exactly the same way: by making the nations into one Group . . . . Then we shall give up the notion of "antagonisms," which belong to a static world, and see only differences--that is, that which is capable of integration.[6]

According to Mary Follett's philosophy, differences among men were

---

[3]Ibid, p. 21.

[4]Mary Parker Follett, Creative Experience (New York: Peter Smith, 1951), p. 303.

[5]Metcalf and Urwick, Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 22.

[6]Follett, The New State . . . , p. 119.

to be appreciated and were given value through the application of the principle of integration. Through conferences and cooperation individuals would evoke each other's latent ideas based upon the facts of a situation, come to see each other's viewpoints and understand each other better, and integrate those viewpoints and become united in the pursuit of their common goal. The integration of diverse opinions and interests was a unifying process and a creative process. Furthermore, she maintained that in integration was the secret of individual growth, of organizational development, and human advancement.

The Scientific and Philosophical Roots of Her Thinking

Mary Parker Follett's thinking was rooted in the developments in biology, physics, and philosophy of her time. She was first struck by the findings of the Dutch physiologist, S. T. Bok, who observed that in the neuromuscular system a reaction was never just a reaction to a stimulus but a function of the "activity-between." For example, when a muscle contracts, the sense organ in that muscle is stimulated so that there is almost a simultaneous afferent nerve impulse from the muscle back to the center, and thus a circular response is established. The contraction of the muscle is only in a certain sense "caused" by the stimulus; that very muscular activity is itself in part producing the stimulus which "causes" the muscular activity. This pattern he called the reflex circle. [7]

---

[7] Follett, Creative Experience, p. 60.

Psychologist Edwin Holt applied these physiological concepts to psychology and said that the activity of an individual is only to a limited degree caused by the stimulus of the situation because the activity itself becomes part of the stimulus which is causing that activity. The organism is always reacting to environment plus itself. He called this circular response.

Follett did not try to say that the physiological processes were exactly parallel to social relations but she did feel that the most valuable part of Bok's teaching was that the reflex arc is the path of stimuli received in consequence of an activity of the individual. Accordingly, in the behavior process the central fact is the meeting and interpenetrating of activities. The parallel in social situations translates to: I plus the interweaving between you and me meeting you plus the interweaving between you and me, etc. A more specific example Follett gives is that farmers are not responding to the middlemen or to middlemen and economic conditions or even to middlemen and economic conditions and their own desires but to the relation between themselves and the whole total envrionment or rather the relating becomes another element in the total environment. This functional relating always has a plus value. And progressive social experience means the creating of plusvalents. "There is no such thing as simple interest in the organic world," Follett concluded, "the law of organic growth is the law of compound interest--geometric progression. This is the law of social relations."[8]

---

[8]Ibid., p. 65.

Follett saw the work of behaviorists and Gestaltists as important but not really adequate. The concepts of the behaviorists were too static for her; the idea of stimulus and response applied more to behavior in a laboratory than in real life. Gestaltists, she felt, stressed product too much rather than process. It was not the uniqueness of the whole that was important but the "making" of the whole. She advocated a dynamic psychology which confirmed the continuing activity of the specific response relations and the evolving of the interrelations. This meant, Follett asserted, that we advance by progressively evolving unities. Understanding the nature of integrative unities would give us an understanding of the road to human progress.

Follett's view of life as the progressive creation of new and higher levels through integrative processes and her focus on unity as a process stemmed from the philosophical breakthroughs of her time. As she explained,

> In philosophy, our greatest thinkers have given us more than indications of this view of unity. Among living philosophers I think Professor Whitehead is contributing most to our understanding of this truth. [9]

To summarize, Mary Parker Follett believed in a dynamic psychology which "gives us 'progressive integratings' as the process of all organic life . . . ." The biological law is growth by the continuous integration of simple, specific responses; in a similar way we build up our characters by uniting diverse tendencies into new action patterns. Social progress follows

---

[9]Metcalf and Urwick, Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 188.

exactly the same law. In fact, Mary Follett felt sure that the substance of a true democracy would be the progressive integrations of human groups.

Integration--the Creative Principle in Social Development

From her thesis on the reciprocal character of all psychological phenomena, Follett elaborated her principle of integration. "The heart of the truth about integration," she wrote, "is the connection between the relating of two activities, their interactive influence, and the values thereby created."[10] The psychology of the specific response did not provide for the creating relationship; the doctrine of circular response involved in the theory of integration gives us creative experience. For Follett progressive integrations--"the ceaseless interweavings of new specific respondings"--was the basis of the forward movement of existence. There is no doubt that she viewed the creative principle of integration in metaphysical terms:

> (The individual) brings into manifestation, powers which are the powers of the universe, and thereby those forces which he is himself helping to create, those which exist in and by and through him are ever more ready to respond, and so Life expands and deepens, fulfils and at the same moment makes possible larger fulfilment.[11]

But Follett's chief aim was not to stay in the realm of philosophy but to apply this higher principle to the conduct of human affairs. She explained

---

[10]Follett, Creative Experience, p. 53.

[11]Ibid., p. 116.

that the task for politics, economics and jurisprudence is

> to find those relations, which free in each the spiritual energy which, uniting each with each gives us on no conceptual plane but in our daily lives, a "will of the people."[12]

The social scientist had to bring about the kind of interweaving from which it would follow that further responses from the environment and further responses from the individual would mean a progressive, integrative experience. The plusvalents or creative increment would have to be provided for. The avenue for these vital "progressive integrations" in human interactions and social development was the group conference.

The basis for a new social order, for creating harmony between nations, between management and labor, between principal and teachers, between the expert and the common man would be the continuous striving for the integration of their diverse views and interests. We may wish to abolish conflict, Follett explained, but we cannot get rid of diversity; it is life's most essential feature.

If experience can be looked at as the confronting of diversity, if we can see that the problem of experience is how to make use of such confronting to preserve the individual and enrich the social life then, according to Follett, we will be taking a long step forward in our thinking. For Follett the basis of all cooperative activity was integrated diversity. We expressed earlier that integration was a progressive unifying process, and in addition, a creative

---

[12]Ibid., p. 130.

process. A genuine interweaving (of points of view, interests, etc.) by changing both sides creates new situations. Whitehead's philosophy is largely focused on the "interplay of diverse values" and the "emergent values." Follett recognized this in social interaction and the group process. [13] There was the interacting, the unifying, and the emerging. The interacting and unifying were really one--integration--the emerging was the something new, the progressive feature in the process. "In administration, she concluded, "we must look for the plusvalue, the something new--the emerging in the evolving situation." [14] This new emergent she frequently referred to as the creative synthesis.

Integration through Group Conferences

Integration in the group conference meant throwing ideas into the situation in order that from the "intermingling" a new thought may be evolved. All diversity wisely handled could lead to the "something new," to a "creative advance into novelty," as Whitehead put it. Follett cites an example of integration in a simple case in industry: a purchasing agent suggests buying a somewhat inferior grade of material which he says will do just as well for the purpose it is to be used for and is less expensive. The head of the production department says that he cannot get satisfactory

---

[13]The correspondence in thinking among contemporary scientists, philosophers and administrators, who also stressed process, unity, and progressive integration, convinced Follett that she was on the right track.

[14]Metcalf and Urwick, Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 198.

results with this material. Which is to have his way? Perhaps this very difference of opinion may make the purchasing agent begin a more systematic search for a material which will cost less and at the same time give results satisfactory to the production manager. This would be an integration, and the emergence of the "something new."[15]

In an earlier section Mary Parker Follett's characterization of the three ways to resolve differences was discussed: domination, compromise, and integration.[16] Domination involved direct or implied coercion and compromise meant both sides giving up something in order to settle the question. With domination or compromise you rearrange existing material, you make quantitative not qualitative adjustments. You adjust but do not create. In compromise there is mere barter of opposed "rights of way"; with integration there is a change in the ideas and their action tendencies. Follett expressed it well when she wrote:

> We come to agreement not by adjustment but by finding the new idea which is always something different from the addition of the previous ideas.[17]

This meant that progressive integration put the emphasis on "novelty" in the moment of synthesis.

---

[15]The example is adapted from Metcalf and Urwick, Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 199.

[16]"resolve differences" does not just refer to conflict resolution in administration but to the natural divergent points of view that occur among people in setting goals, developing plans, making decisions.

[17]Follett, Creative Experience, p. 117.

The principle of integration in social interaction not only would give the plus value of "novelty"--the creative advance at the moment of synthesis--but also by integrating interests the increment of unifying is added. A continuously unifying and creating process in group relations would permit organizations and ultimately all society to flourish. A corollary to this is that the integrating of wants precludes the necessity of gaining power to satisfy desire. Mary Follett was accustomed to giving an example of integration from everyday life:

> In a library, in one of the smaller rooms, someone wants the window open, the other occupant wants it shut. They decided to open the window in the next room where no one was sitting. This was not a compromise because there was no lopping off of desire; both got what they really wanted. For the one person did not want the north wind to blow directly on him; likewise the other person did not want that particular window open, he simply wanted more air in the room. [18]

Their decision represented a true integration. There was no need to resort to "power" or disputes. By reducing the area of irreconciliable controversy, you reduce the area of arbitrary power.

Approaches to the Process of Integration

The successful integration in the library which is described in the preceding section gives us clues about the process by which we can achieve integration. "The first step in integration," Follett explained, "is to break up wholes; to analyze, differentiate, and discriminate." [19] Differences must be brought

---

[18] Adapted from example cited by Follett in Creative Experience, p. 184.

[19] Ibid., p. 165.

into the open and broken up into their constituent parts. When we confront differences in this way, it often leads us to evaluate our own interests and to revaluate them. Evaluating peoples, desires or interests entails an examination of the symbols involved. What is behind a person's opinion or desire? What does it mean? In the case of the situation in the library, what the one person wanted was more air in the room. An open window symbolized this. Upon evaluating his desire it was apparent that it did not need to be any particular window. Revaluation led to integration in that each had his real wish fulfilled and not just a substitute. There often comes a moment in the conference process--even between two individuals--when after a simultaneous revaluation of interests on both sides, the interests fit into each other and unity precipitates itself.

Mary Parker Follett never thought that integration would be a simple matter. To her it was a real achievement and the path was full of obstacles. She felt it required intelligence, discrimination, and inventiveness. These powers could be developed as people became habituated to the process. A major stumbling block was that our culture was accustomed to domination. People looked forward to the "thrills of conquest" and would miss that feeling if a discussion ended without giving them that sensation. In integration there is no battling of interests with a crown to the victor, but a uniting of interests. Another obstacle she felt would be the likelihood that politicians, businessmen, and school administrators would overtheorize the principle when what it needed

was to find expression in concrete activity. A final stumbling block to achieving the integration principle in social interaction was our lack of training for it. For example, businessmen would give employees a yes or no situation and expect integration to occur. There are always more than two alternatives and an either-or interpretation of a situation only serves to block the creative process.

Integration and the Need for Participation

Essential to applying Follett's theory of progressive integration in an organization is the requirement of participation at different levels. And this could only be obtained, she felt, by an administration which encourages it, by a daily management which recognizes and acts on the principle of participation, and by a method of settling differences and of dealing with the diverse contributions of men who may be very different in temperament, training, and attainments. This last point seems to imply that "participation" should somehow be institutionalized. However, as much as she was a supporter of decentralization, her interest was not in recommending new structures or institutions but in improving process. As she expressed it, "decentralization (is not based) on mere changes in structure but on vital modes of association."[20] She worked with management teams, boards of directors, local union committees, foremen and workers, and employer-employee councils.

---

[20]Follett, Creative Experience, p. 229.

Her primary focus was to assist them in seeing diversity in a positive light and in "integrating" creative solutions to problems.

One point emphasized by Follett was that participation should, whenever possible, take place at the beginning of a process. In this vein she elaborated:

> Some people want to give the workmen a share in carrying out the purpose of the plant and do not see that that involves a share in creating the purpose of the plant. 21

Early participation also relates to the importance of cooperative fact-finding. Cooperative investigation is a big step toward final agreement because it eliminates putting one set of facts against another. Fact-finding is part of the differentiation phase that precedes integration. When done in the right spirit it contributes to unity.

Mary Follett called for participation at all levels of society. Problems could not be solved or interests harmonized just through the input of "experts." The ordinary teacher, workman, or citizen's experience must be added to that of the expert. 22

> When the process of cooperation between expert and people is given its legitimate chance, the experience of the people may change the conclusions of the expert while the conclusions of the expert are changing the experience of the people . . . . Here we have the compound interest of all genuine cooperation. 23

---

21 Ibid., p. 82.

22 Mary Follett gives an illustration of this principle in Creative Experience (p. 19): "the intelligent farmer does not take formulae of the agricultural colleges as revealed truth, but as a basis from which to begin his own observations. He knows that the expert is not one who has access to the secrets of the All-wise, but one who has a particular kind of experience which must be added to his own particular kind of experience, both have their parts to play.

23 Ibid., p. 218.

To Follett the social process was clearly a process of cooperating experience. But for this to work she did lay down the condition that everyone of us must acquire a scientific attitude of mind. When we see experts, administrators, and workers all integral parts of the social process, all learning how to make facts, how to view facts and opinions, how to develop criteria by which to judge them, how to arrive at creative, integrative solutions based on them, then we will have a glimpse of the "genuine democracy" that Mary Parker Follett envisioned.

Further Considerations

Follett's philosophy of administration valued both centralization and decentralization, the role of the manager and the role of the worker. In the same way that she counseled the rank and file about their participation she had advice for the manager. Most often the manager had to learn to be open, be able and ready to explain, be able to make differences into a unifying factor rather than a disruptive factor, be willing to search for the real values involved on both sides and have the capacity to bring about an "interpenetration" of these values. Genuine harmony and agreement is part of the slow process of interweaving many activities together and this is not achieved through consent, the traditional democratic notion, but through real participation. The nature of this participation had to be interactive--the staff member had to have the opportunity to influence the manager just as the manager could have the opportunity to influence the staff member.

They reacted to each other and to the relating between them. One of the characteristics of this interacting process was that it was, as Follett expressed it, always "evoking." It would call out something from the other, release something, and open the way for latent capacities and possibilities. This "evoking" phenomenon contributed to creativity in the group problem-solving process. The release of the capacities and potentialities residing in the group or conference was the same as integration.[24] On every level the movement of life is through the release of energy and in group relations this release also meant movement and progress. It carried the social process onto a higher level.

Mary Follett's conviction about the principle of integration in group consultation was held not merely because it had a scientific basis and seemed necessary to human progress, but also because she believed that individuals found their greatest potentialities through group participation. The group, too, was to be the primary creative vehicle for all peoples and all endeavors. In one of her numerous visionary statements she declared:

> . . . we are now at the beginning of a period of creative energy, but that instead of being the individual creativeness of the past which gave us our artists and poets, we may now enter on a period of collective creativeness if we have the imagination to see its potentialities, its reach, its ultimate significance, above all, if we are willing patiently to work out the method.[25]

---

[24]This statement illustrates how, in the ANISA view, a process is the ordered expression of potentiality. Achieving integration in the problem-solving process effects the release of potential. Applying this integration in another instance constitutes effectance.

[25]Metcalf and Urwick, Dynamic Administration . . . , p. 94.

The Compatibility of Follett's Philosophy with ANISA

Mary Parker Follett provided the clear psychological and sociological rationale for a new group process. Her theory for achieving progressive, creative experience in organizational life is singularly compatible with ANISA's philosophy. The progressive differentiation and integration upon which the learning competence of an individual is based has a direct parallel in organizational life. Through the human adaptations and interweavings in the group discussion process, diversity is confronted, differentiations are made, and the subsequent integration, when achieved, takes the group to a higher level of interaction and understanding. Achieving these integrations means the organization is learning how to learn. Its organizational health and stability will be sound.

Secondly, Follett's emphasis on "process" and the continuously evolving situation that groups are adjusting to and in some mysterious way creating through their "relatings" is consistent with ANISA's organismic approach. Moreover, in groups as in individuals, through the achievement of integrations comes the "release"--the release of latent potentialities and the release that provides the energy behind the "creative advance into novelty." This creative advance in individual development corresponds to the "something new," the "plus value," the "emergent value" that Follett called for in group discussions.

In the same way that a teacher must arrange environments to facilitate a child's attainment of learning competence, an administrator has the obligation, according to Follett, to provide for the situations in which staff members will participate in those evocative group conferences that lead to integration and unity, and to creative experience.

Mary Parker Follett advocated the creative potential of the group and saw it as the hope of a new age, if we all were "willing patiently to work out the method." The next section reviews the empirical evidence from Norman Maier's "patient" research into the efficacy and methods of the group problem-solving approach. Through controlled experiments he has shown the import of the conclusions Follett reached through personal observations.

THE EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FOR GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING

Maier's Place in the Field

Social psychologist Norman Maier has investigated human behavior in many social settings. He was earlier recognized for his work The Principles of Human Relations, but his research of the last fifteen years into problem-solving discussions is that with which he is most prominently identified. Prior to Maier's studies there were experiments which showed that groups which had participated in planning changes in an organization were more willing and able to carry out those changes than those that had not (Coch and French, 1948); that group participation in setting organizational goals engendered more group

commitment to those goals (Likert, 1957); and that subordinate participation in decisions seemed to assure more effective and supportive implementation of those decisions (Vroom, 1960).

The motivational merit of group solutions was becoming recognized but the extent to which problem-solving conferences engendered quality in decision-making had only begun to be addressed. Maier wanted to pursue this issue and other related questions. He investigated such concerns as: Can discussions heighten disagreement or can they resolve differences? Can a good conference leader facilitate a solution? Does group discussion inhibit or foster creativity? How does the process affect the solution? Can the value of participation be captured without allowing true group problem-solving? How is the method influenced by the nature of the problem?

These and other variables Maier treats in his book Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, which contains a collection of his experiments and illuminating case studies on group problem-solving. The conclusions he draws, though he admits further research is needed, are that group problem-solving is highly motivating, relates to active learning, stimulates creativity, can provide for quality in decision, requires special leadership skills; and that its success is predicated on a positive view of man, a climate of honesty and cooperation, and on the suitability of the problem. It is not within the scope of this paper to recapitulate the research material he has gathered in his inquiry. We will include, however, an account of one set of experiments he conducted

which were designed to test group conference methods and obtain various kinds of feedback from participants. [26]

A Set of Three Experiments--a Basis for Data

Maier set up three experimental conferences: one using the informational approach--the leader has dictated a decision and is merely communicating it; the pseudo-democratic--the leader wants the guise of participation but wants to retain control of the decision; and the problem-solving--in which a solution is to evolve from the group. To control variables, the difference in conferences was reduced to that of leadership method--simply stated, whether the method was dominating, manipulative or democratic. To simplify objective comparisons and isolate causal factors, Maier and his assistants used the same problem, the same conference leader, similar groups, and a similar situational background for all three experiences.

The experiment was designed so that participants did not know they were participating in an experiment. They were all middle management personnel at a week long seminar operated by their organization. Their being organized to discuss a problem fit into the course of the week, so there was no "role-playing" in the session. Three groups of six subjects each were randomly chosen and the conference leader was instructed how to

---

[26]The complete transcript of these group discussions is given in Maier's book Creative Management. The subsequent report on these experiments is adapted from pp. 66-147 of that book. Compiled responses to the questionnaires Maier administered are included in the appendix to this paper.

conduct the three types of conferences. The group leader had had no previous association with the conference. Conference results hinged on what happened during the meetings themselves.

A topic or problem was chosen which was relevant to the interests and circumstances of the participants and which was thought not to be emotionally charged, since it was thought that an issue of this type might favor the group problem-solving approach. Each group was allotted the same amount of time (twenty-five minutes) to reach a conclusion.

Maier describes the nature of each conference:

> The first experimental group was exposed to the problem-solving method of conference leadership. Activity was organized around a problem-solving sequence of events. First the leader outlined the purpose of the meeting and then specified the procedures to be followed. He then stated the problem to be solved by the group and solicited ideas and suggestions. The group went on to develop and evaluate ideas and evolved a solution through group decision.
>
> The second experimental group was exposed to pseudo-democratic leadership. They also went through a problem-solving sequence, but with some important differences. The leader did not spell out the exact ground rules or procedures to be followed, leaving the situation somewhat vague and ambiguous. Furthermore, after the problem was stated and suggestions invited, he proceeded to subtly thrust his preconceived ideas, one by one, into the discussion and to manipulate the group into adopting his solution. He accomplished this by diplomatically offering his own ideas, reinforcing some suggestions from group members while ignoring or quietly vetoing others, and holding the line against any changes to the final solution which he was predisposed to accept.
>
> The third experimental group was exposed to the orthodox informational or tell-and-sell method of conference leadership. The leader described the problem and the reasons behind it. He outlined the solution which had been established, explained its details, stressed its merits, and answered questions from the group on how the plan affected them. [27]

---

[27] Maier and Hayes, Creative Management, pp. 76-77.

At the end of each experimental conference the participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire that sampled their reactions along the following dimensions:

1. The willingness of group members to support and carry out the final decision.
2. The effect of the conference on group cohesiveness and cooperative attitudes.
3. The effect of the conference on group attitudes toward the conference leader.

Analysis and Results of the Experiment

An analysis of the results from the three sessions indicates that the problem-solving approach had the most favorable score on all three points. Although dissatisfaction was registered in the pseudo-democratic approach about the role of the leader and the amount of influence people thought they could exert, the results of the questionnaire seemed to indicate that people appreciated some participation rather than none at all. The evaluation of the informational conference was the least favorable, including the rating on the quality of the decision. On the other hand, the group solution appeared to be a high quality decision, one that was no more costly than a plan the higher management might have adopted and it amply met management's general objectives. According to the questionnaires the group felt unanimously that their decision was the best decision that could be made at that time and that it was in the fullest interests of the company.

The full set of compiled responses is included in the appendix along with Maier's evaluation, as it sheds light on the type of data that can be obtained from this type of experiment and their usefulness in analyzing the group processes and behavioral principles involved. Thus far I have referred only to the subjective reactions of the participants. The discussions also can be compared on the basis of the behavior of the participants. For example, in the table below there is recorded the number of speeches made by the leader and by group members. [28]

TIMES LEADER AND PARTICIPANTS TALKED

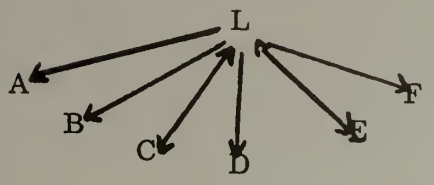
Type of Conference	No. of Group Responses	No. of Leader Responses	Percentage of Leader Responses
Problem-solving	91	47	34.1
Pseudo-democratic	46	36	43.9
Informational	23	29	55.8

If we examine the group responses, which register the participation of the members, we see that there were 91 responses made by them in the problem-solving conference. The number fell to forty-six, or about half the previous number, in the pseudo-democratic conference. In the informational type of conference the number of group responses dropped to only twenty-five, or about one-fourth of the number made in the problem-solving discussion.

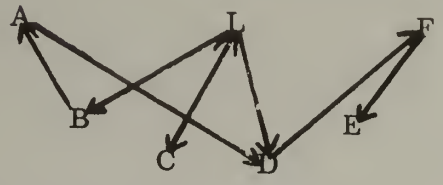
[28]The table shown is based on Table 3 on p. 145 of Maier's Creative Management.

Observation of the behavior of participants in group conferences also reveals that the interaction pattern in a session which has the objective of problem-solving allows for much more diverse interchange (see diagram).[29]

UNILATERAL



PROBLEM-SOLVING



INTERACTION PATTERN IN INFORMATIONAL AND PROBLEM-SOLVING CONFERENCES. The letter L designates the leader, letters A through F designate participants, and the arrows indicate the direction of the verbal interactions. The diagram on the left shows that the major pattern of interaction in the informational conference is from leader to participants. Some of the participants also interact with the leader (double headed arrows) but there is no tendency for participants to interact.

The diagram on the right indicates the interaction pattern in the problem-solving conference. Here the interactions follow an irregular sequence and there is a good deal of interaction between participants. In such discussions the leader may be a central figure in the interaction, but it is his objective to facilitate interactions between the participants.

Analysis of the dialogue and the flow of discussion in the transcript also provides information on how the diverse interaction pattern drew out varied contributions and new ideas from the members. It represents the "evoking" part of the process that Follett described in group consultation.

---

[29]The diagram given above is drawn from Maier, Creative Management, Figure 4 on p. 71.

Close study of the evolution of the decision, including statements and gestures made by both leader and participants, can also very definitely supply clues as to the most effective ways of applying the process so that it achieves the desired end--a high quality decision, a high acceptance or motivational level, and unified implementation. The experiment reviewed in this paper is not presented for the purpose of drawing startling conclusions. Rather it was included because it is typical of Maier's research and it illustrates how it can be analyzed to elucidate behavioral findings and principles. In subsequent sections on group problem-solving we will present guidelines for the development of the method and improvement of the process. These will be based on conclusions reached by Maier from his experiments and case studies.

In his attempts to systematically isolate the variables and address the causal factors that operate in group problem-solving, Maier's ultimate aim is to refine the process so that out of it will come both satisfied participants and the best decision. This, in effect, is the substance of what Follett called integration. Maier has confirmed her principles through his analysis and laid them on a scientific foundation so that their practice can be more readily understood and more widely applied.

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING

Follett has said that a decision is only a moment in a process. Clearly the conditions and forces surrounding the making of a decision are not static

and it is also no mere reflex response. Some authors in administration feel that "decision-making" implies choosing from among a given set of alternatives whereas problem-solving involves creating alternatives. This may or may not be a valid distinction, and any difference between decision-making and problem-solving may be mostly one of semantics. Be that as it may decision-making usually implies a "product" while problem-solving usually refers to a "process." In this paper the phrase group problem-solving will be used to describe the ANISA approach to decision-making. The word "problem" is viewed in its broadly defined sense of the question under consideration, one which a group is brought together to discuss.

The Importance of Participation--a Democratic View

The authoritarian theory of administration, which has dominated the profession for so long, left little room for the practice of group participation. Consistent with its philosophy was the idea of unilateral decision-making. Managers did not want to dilute their authority in any way. They believed that participation by subordinates in the process of decision-making could only have this result. Management was thought to need full autonomy and authority in decision-making in order to maintain order and control. This orientation still underlies much of administrative behavior. Leaders in the human relations movement were the first to give real credence to the concept of participatory decision-making (also referred to as participatory management). Human relations theorists made it clear that the processes

of decision-making and problem-solving when carried out by organizations are different from the same processes carried out by individuals. Organizational decision-making always involves both cognitive and social processes. The events that intervene between the identification of a problem and a solution are both intrapersonal and interpersonal. They saw in the participatory approach a way for a worker or subordinate to fulfill his desires for responsibility, to make his work more meaningful, and ultimately to affirm his nature as a creative, responsible human being.

For certain theorists participation in decision-making came to be seen as the answer to everything. For others the converse was true. They saw it merely as a gimmick in the leader's bag of tricks. It is our conviction, however, that it is one of the principles of good organization. There is no doubt that faith in the outcome of the participative decision-making process rests on faith in people and respect for their attributes and abilities. This is an attitude that the human relationists were able to successfully introduce into modern administrative thought. However, the principle of group decision-making goes beyond this solely "human" dimension. Modern theorists, who view an organization as a total system, from Mary Follett to Warren Bennis, regard participation and group decision-making as essential to an organization's healthy development. They are essential to the evolving relationship with its internal and external environments. These principles combine a scientific attitude of investigation with the creative group experience and out

of this the organization makes the successive differentiations and integrations that will enable it to actualize its potentialities.

Modern theorists have also pointed out that inasmuch as effective administration involves making good decisions, it equally involves seeing that decisions are carried out within the existing social framework. To accomplish this management needs the cooperation and commitment of employees. Research shows that employee initiative, cooperation and responsibility are directly proportional to participation in decision-making.[30] The key point then in acceptance of decisions is that success depends not only on the nature of the decision but also upon the process by which the decision has been reached. This matter of "acceptance" will be discussed again later but it can be noted at this juncture that in regard to this question the modern behavioralists are merely extending the thinking of Lewin. Lewin discussed the relationship of participation to commitment and saw in the group process the employee's best opportunities for recognition, dignity and self-realization.

The Behavior of the Group

An analysis of face-to-face discussion in group situations utilizes the research of many fields of behavioral science. Norman Maier has described the situation:

> Experimental psychology contributed to our knowledge of problem-solving, frustration, and attitudes; social psychology to our knowledge of group

---

[30] Maier and Hayes, Creative Management, p. 3.

> processes, power relations, interpersonal communication; and clinical psychology to our understanding of counseling and adjustment. All of these facets are set into operation whenever a group meets for discussion. [31]

The accumulated knowledge about group behavior indicates that we cannot deal with groups as mere collections of "individuals." Groups have their own properties, including their own potentiality. It has been demonstrated that it is possible to create relationships between individuals in a group situation that are exactly opposite of the way those same individuals would behave in other settings. After reviewing the research on group discussions and participatory decision-making Douglas McGregor reached conclusions which we quote below. They coincide with the overall perspective of this paper.

> Groups can make decisions that are effectively implemented, they are creative, and innovative, they operate efficiently, they are not crippled by disagreements or dominant personalities; pressures for conformity are minimal, the knowledge and skills of each member are effectively utilized. The "outputs" of the group need not be mediocre, or least common denominator compromises, but can often yield decisions and solutions at a level of performance superior to the sum of the outputs of the individual members operating separately. Finally, the members see the group as a setting within which there are attractive opportunities to achieve many of their individual goals and to gain intrinsic rewards. [32]

Some assets that groups have for problem-solving over individuals are fairly obvious. Groups possess more knowledge and they can think

---

[31]Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, p. v.

[32]Bennis, Schein, and McGregor, Leadership and Motivation . . . , p. 229.

in a greater variety of ways. [33] Individuals are not capable of exploring varied angles and implications the way a group is. In groups different personalities approach problems in different ways. Some are conservative, some take chances; some look at details while others choose a global approach; some like facts, others feelings. Empirical evidence increasingly tends to support the effectiveness of group problem-solving. A group discussion stimulates thought and provides a mechanism for correcting errors which result from purely individual thought. Group conferences of this type provide a vehicle for emotional support by reducing individual anxieties. Studies on groups by social psychologist Brown in 1965 indicated that interaction among people tends to increase their similarity in attitudes and opinions. [34] This does not mean that members will not continue to offer different opinions and attitudes to the group discussion. What it does say is something about the evolution of an effective group problem-solving process. Brown pointed out that members of a group with initially wide variance in individual judgments will tend to converge on a common position. This process seems to be enhanced when the issue is relevant to their interaction and when the problem is of mutual interest. This is exactly the phenomenon that takes place with group decision-making in the administration of a organization. Through participation and interaction on issues that are certainly of mutual interest, the

---

[33]This collective knowledge is an expression of the organization's immanence and is a necessary foundation of administration.

[34]Vroom and Yetton, Leadership and Decision-making, p. 30.

divergent thinking of the members gradually reaches a decision that is an integration of their ideas, needs and objectives.

Another characteristic of groups Maier states in very blunt terms: "Groups have a unique advantage in thinking because the potentiality for disagreement is greater . . . ."[35] A variation of this point is what traditional "authoritarian" administrators use to criticize group problem-solving. They say it promotes disunity, dilutes workforce energy, and confuses organizational objectives with petty and irrelevant private needs and individual goals. The fact is that disagreement is the inevitable product of diverse interests and personalities. The only choice is in the means selected for dealing with diversity and conflict. The "authoritarian" tries to suppress conflict by not listening to or tolerating it, thereby driving it underground. He fails to see his work group as a social entity as well as a productive entity.

Not only is some degree of conflict inevitable in an organization, indeed a certain amount of it is healthy. As Follett explained, it is productive of change in that it may bring about creative transformations resulting in the improvement of structure and functioning of the organization. Most important is the attitude toward conflict and its resolution that members of a group hold. They must recognize that it is out of the divergent and conflicting opinions

---

[35]Maier and Hayes, Creative Management, p. 183.

offered that a new synthesis is made. It is as if it is necessary for the group to make these varied differentiations for the "creative integration" described by Follett to be made. The conditions for the effective functioning of this principle in group problem-solving are mutual respect and basic harmony of purpose.

The Group's Ability for Self-monitoring

We have said that one of the fallacies of the authoritarian approach to administration is not its stress on control and coordination but its assumption that without that control there would be no order or unified purpose. In his research with scores of decision-making control groups Norman Maier concludes:

> If we observe the functioning of small groups in reaching a decision, we can see that any primary group places numerous limits on the individualistic behavior of its members. Deviant behavior is policed by the group itself . . . . [36]

Mutually agreed-on restraints do not infringe on the legitimate human freedoms which are prerequisite to responsible behavior and creative achievement. In another place Maier succinctly declares that "the distinctive feature of democratic decision-making is in having one's _say_, not in having one's _way_. In face-to-face meetings this _say_ has its full meaning." [37]

Satisfaction is greatest when the participants feel they have had as much influence as they wish. In group problem-solving settings the difference in

---

[36] _Ibid._, p. 197.

[37] _Ibid._, p. 198.

majority versus minority opinion often disappears because the difference is resolved in a new alternative. Group members must understand, however, that their purpose is not to win support for this or that individual opinion, but to develop a collective judgment which is something more (or "plus" in Follett's terms) than the sum of the individual views represented, having an entity of its own.

This conjoint thinking is only possible when the members collectively and individually have appreciated both the importance of disassociating self from opinion and have acquired skill in integration. Mary Follett made the point that compromise is not enough because it means both sides have given up something. Maier's experiments with decision-making groups in business confirmed this. Collective enthusiasm for a policy is impossible where those who have to carry it out start with a sense of loss. Integration is developed out of an ability to recognize the real needs which lie behind apparently conflicting statements and out of an inventiveness in finding a solution which satisfies all of those needs. Urwick, a somewhat traditional theorist but a great admirer of Follett, stressed the importance of "patience" and the "self-control of egotism" for effective committee functioning.

Related to this, Richard C. Anderson in his analysis of group decision-making emphasizes the point that to oppose an idea without opposing the man is a critical skill for the development of a mature problem-solving capacity. There are other elements that have been shown to be vital to problem-solving

discussions but this point appears to be fundamental. For if this injunction is followed, the influence of the status differentials (supervisor-subordinate, master-assistant, etc.) that normally inhibit communication in a group is greatly diminished.

If a group is small, cohesive, and skilled in collective problem-solving, differences are usually resolved through consensus. Maier's experiments with groups revealed:

> Dissidents usually set aside their individualistic views and support group decisions for the sake of group goals, mutual respect, and responsible cooperation. [38]

Anderson makes similar conclusions, though they are not based on empirical evidence like Maier's. His observations are drawn from his experience with the Quakers. Employing a group decision-making process at all levels of their organization, Quakers strive to attain a "sense of the meeting." All members must agree that the decision best meets the purpose of the total group. The individual participant accepts the welfare of the group as being above his own self-interest and submits to the sense of the group. Their belief, which is rapidly being validated by behavioral scientists, is that a decision is truly effective only when each member is behind it. Anderson points out that the Quakers' requirement of unanimity often delays decision. The arrival at a consensus in group decision-making, according to Maier is indeed a real and constant aim, but a secondary commitment to majority rule, providing

---

[38]Maier and Hayes, Creative Management, p. 197.

minority opinions have had adequate opportunities for expression, is a useful resolution of this problem.

In a sense this discussion illustrates that group functioning delimits and restricts the so-called "freedom of the individual," but in successful groups these restrictions make the more effective use of those abilities, such as permissive listening and cooperation, which are needed for the group. The process also has obvious benefits to the development of the individual participant.

The Quality-Acceptance Controversy

There is little disagreement that people support ideas and objectives in which they have had a part more enthusiastically than decisions which have been imposed, but many administrators contend that this is of little importance in relation to the quality of decisions. Executives sometimes feel that the price of participative methods may be a costly sacrifice in quality. They are haunted by remarks like "a camel is a horse created by a committee," and certainly there are a great many group experiences that would reinforce this thinking. They have found it to be a waste of time and energy.

In fact, the quality of a decision and its acceptability are two sides of the same coin. They are not either-or propositions. "Quality" has to do with a decision's technical merit; "acceptance" has to do with a decision's motivational merit. Both elements are needed. Weak decisions, even if accepted are not good and will not survive and vice versa. Maier sheds more

illumination on this duality:

> Acceptance becomes even more important because a problem in technical merit (decision quality) is usually more immediately noticed and rectifiable whereas a problem in acceptance can brood under the surface and disorient the psychological atmosphere for a long time. [39]

Often when administrators have tried to improve on gaining acceptance of their decision, they have instituted a practice referred to as "consultative management." This approach encourages discussion by subordinates but leaves the decision to superiors. A limited degree of participation is tolerated but the right to make a decision is not given. Consultative management may be the best approach in certain situations. Naturally the practical and realistic objective of the administrator today is simply to find a leadership pattern which sustains high quality in management decisions and at the same time secures the acceptance necessary to get the decision carried out. However, it should be borne in mind that decision-making is a function not a right of management. "The power to make a decision is not the same as the power to carry it out."[40] This puts the emphasis on the best way of carrying a decision out. Democratic decision-making through group problem-solving is not a new definition of administrative prerogatives but a method of administration--one that is grounded on a certain philosophical and empirical foundation.

To summarize the position of this paper, it would be consistent to say that high quality decisions require wisdom, and wisdom is the product of

---

[39]Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, p. 169.

[40]Ibid., p. 19.

intelligence and knowledge. Decisions of high acceptance, on the other hand, require satisfaction, and satisfaction is usually the product of participation and involvement in problem-solving.[41] Our contention is that a whole group, including the leader or supervisor, possess more resources for problem-solving than any of its sub-parts and that, in addition, the process itself is intrinsically motivating, potentially self-actualizing, and therefore a superior method of administration.

A final note on this subject concerns the variable of time which is often cited as a criterion for a decision-making approach. Specifically, administrators often hold that group problem-solving is too lengthy a process and thus impedes effective management. However, in comparing the time element one should not only consider the time required to reach a decision but also the time required to communicate it and to gain acceptance of it. Authoritarian decisions on the one hand usually require little time to make but a great deal of time to communicate and gain acceptance. Group decision, on the other hand, may require considerable time to evolve but require little or no time to gain the understanding and acceptance of the group.

---

[41]High acceptance can exist if there is respect for the character and competence of the administration. But sometimes administrators rely on this factor too often and bypass the need for participation.

EMPLOYING THE GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING METHOD

Centralized control and across the board standardization of policies are vastly overdone in most authoritarian organizations, but this does not alter the fact that a fairly detailed and centralized control of some functions usually is necessary, even in the most democratic institutions. Coordination is unifying and productive. Some of the most naive criticisms of participatory decision-making discuss the hazards of decentralization from the viewpoint that all the decisions of an organization are to be subject to the group process. Obviously this situation would be neither practical nor desirable. It should be noted that as individuals in a group problem-solving conference cannot and do not expect to have their own way all the time, subordinate sub-groups in the larger organization do not expect and cannot be expected to have their way on every decision which organizations have to reach.

There have been numerous studies that show the efficacy of participatory decision-making, but as one examines the overall evidence one sees that participation by subordinates in decision-making has consequences that vary from one situation to another.[42] As stated, we affirm that the method is not applicable to all situation. Vroom and Yetton probably have done the most exhaustive study of the situation factors determining the use of partici-

---

[42]The studies of Coch and French (1948), Bavelas in French (1950), Strauss in Whyte (1955), and Vroom (1960) showed the efficacy of subordinate participation in decision-making, whereas the research of Morse and Reimer (1950) and Vroom (1970) indicates that the method's effectiveness depends upon the nature of the situation.

patory decision-making in their recent work Leadership and Decision-Making (1974). They have attempted to design a model "to regulate, in some rational way, choices among . . . decision methods."[43] They base it on empirical evidence concerning the likely consequences of different methods and explain that future research should provide a firmer foundation for their model. Vroom and Yetton identify three classes of outcomes that influence the ultimate effectiveness of decisions: (1) the quality or rationality of the decision (2) the acceptance of the decision by subordinates and their commitment to execute it effectively, and (3) the amount of time required to make the decision. Vroom and Yetton's orientation is based on Vroom's earlier review (1970) of the evidence regarding the effects of participation on each of these three outcomes. He concluded that

> . . . the results suggest that allocating problem-solving and decision-making tasks to entire groups as compared with the leader or manager in charge of the groups, requires a greater investment of man hours but produces higher acceptance of decisions and a higher probability that the decisions will be executed efficiently. Differences between these two methods in quality of decisions and in elapsed time are inconclusive and probably highly variable . . . . It would be naive to think that group decision-making is always more effective than autocratic decision-making, or vice versa; the relative effectiveness of these two extreme methods depends both on the weights attached to quality, acceptance and time variables and differences in amounts of these outcomes resulting from these methods, neither of which is invariant from one situation to another.[44]

---

[43]Vroom and Yetton, Leadership and Decision-Making, p. 20.

[44]Ibid.

Using both an inductive and deductive approach the authors elaborate the situational properties that might affect administrators' choices among alternative decision-making processes. They include:

1. The importance of the quality of the decision

2. The extent to which the leader possesses sufficient information/ expertise to make a high quality decision by himself. This refers to information necessary to evaluate different alternatives and information on the preferences of subordinates.

3. The extent to which subordinates, taken collectively, have the necessary information to generate a high quality decision.

4. The extent to which the problem is structured.

5. the extent to which acceptance or commitment on the part of subordinates is critical to effective implementation or decisions.

6. The prior probability that the leader's autocratic decision will receive acceptance by subordinates.

7. The extent to which subordinates are motivated to attain the organizational goals as represented in the objectives connected with the problem (what Maier expresses as the condition of "mutual interest").

8. The extent to which subordinates are likely to be in disagreement over preferred solutions. [45]

Vroom and Yetton's model is a vehicle designed to help an administrator select a decision process that is rational given his view of the situation. They add: "Insofar as their (leaders) judgments are imperfectly related to the actual state of affairs, deviations from objective rationality might be expected." [46]

---

[45] Ibid., pp. 28-30.

[46] Ibid., p. 16.

Deviations from "objective rationality" can be expected but, nevertheless, Vroom and Yetton's presentation of situational properties is extremely useful to administrators who are attempting to apply a more democratic style and to find suitable contexts for group participation in their organization. We will also consider a few principles which provide a general framework for making choices of decision-making approaches. Though not as precise as Vroom and Yetton's variables, it is hoped that their simplicity and applicability will make them useful to an ANISA administrator.

The balance between quality and acceptance in a decision is an important consideration for administrators. But one point should be noted in this regard. Although people may disagree on the relative importance of the quality and acceptance requirements, the final assessment must be made by the person who is responsible for the decision. For example, if an administrator feels that a particular decision is required or correct, he is in no condition to lead a group discussion on the matter. In this state of mind he would be better off simply supplying the solution and making acceptance a secondary objective. Observations of control groups, in fact, show that when a leader strongly favors a particular decision, he is a more effective persuader than a group discussion leader.[47] Thus, regardless of whether

---

[47]Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, p. 11.

quality is the most important factor in a decision, or whether the leader thinks it is the most important, the procedure will very likely be the same.

We have discussed the creative potential that lies within the group problem-solving approach and its indispensable role in the organic growth of an organization. There are certain administrative situations, however, in which group problem-solving has its greatest relevance and reaches its fullest potential. We would set forth two guiding principles, which might be an aid to an administrator's behavior in carrying out the decision-making function. These are the equity and unity principles.

The Equity Principle

Questions or problems which arise within an organization that are mainly concerned with the just or fair thing to do usually lend themselves to the group problem-solving method. If a school administrator, for example, asks himself "What is the equitable solution to this matter involving my three head teachers?"--he has a problem that should be brought to the group involved. Issues of fairness are often largely a matter where feeling and acceptance are paramount. It would be difficult for anyone to find an objective criterion that would ensure the achievement of fairness in a group. For example, a set of three other head teachers might have different feelings or perspectives on the problem. Each group would solve the problem differently and be satisfied with its own solution. Solutions relating to equity cannot be generalized, and their merit lies in the fact that they are tailored

to fit the group which makes them.

The equity principle can be further illuminated by some relevant examples from the organizational setting. Problems that fall into this category might have to with:

-the fair way to distribute something desirable, be it a typewriter, office space, a globe, a parking place

-the fair way to get something undesirable accomplished

-the fair way to settle disciplinary problems

In Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences Norman Maier cites a case which, though rather mundane in nature, is useful in showing the appropriateness of the group problem-solving approach in situations that fall under the second category mentioned above. The following is extracted from his studies:

> A supervisor needed two of the three secretaries in his office for work on a Sunday. He asked them individually, and each claimed that she had made a date that she could not break. The fact that Sunday work paid double did not interest them.
>
> The supervisor decided to try the group decision-making method. He asked the women to meet in his office and told them about the emergency job. Since he needed the help of two of them, he wondered what would be the fairest way to handle it. The secretaries readily entered into the discussion. It turned out that all had plans, but one had an engagement with some other women, and all three secretaries agreed that this was not like a real date. Thus this girl agreed that it was only fair that she should work.
>
> One more secretary was needed. Further discussion revealed that one woman had a date with her fiance, while the third had a date with a new male friend. All three women agreed that a date with a fiance was not as "heavy" as one with a new prospect. Thus this third woman was not required to work, even though she had least seniority, because this was considered fair.

> The quality issue did not enter into the problem for two reasons: (1) All three were qualified to do the work. (2) The problem was stated in such a way as to limit it to the matter at stake. The question posed was not whether anyone should have to work on Sunday, but who would be doing so. The problem was so stated as to keep it within the bounds of the supervisor's freedom of action. [48]

Highlighting the guiding principle of equity should heighten an administrator's awareness as he chooses alternative decision-making processes. Hopefully it will also add to the administrator's philosophical and conceptual understanding of the value of the group method. Ultimately both factors should influence his behavior.

The Unity Principle

Greater unity and cohesiveness have been shown to be potential by-products of group problem-solving. The question of unity arises in still another connection. Unity is critical to acceptance and execution in many areas of the functioning and development of an organization. Whenever new directions are involved, the group problem-solving technique can unify and strengthen the organization and contribute to setting it on a successful course.

The unity principle would concern the following issues:

-The creation of an organizational philosophy

-The setting of goals

---

[48]Adapted from Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, pp. 12-13.

-The establishment of policies and the evaluation of existing procedures

-The consideration of new directions or departures

-The resolution of problems of cooperation or disagreement

If an administrator recognizes that the unity principle applies to the decision that has to be made, he will do well to employ the group problem-solving method.

The importance of applying the principles of equity and unity to an administrator's choice process finds its corollary in Mary ParkerFollett's theory. Fairness is assured not necessarily when group members are being forced to "give up" through compromise but when they can achieve the creative integration. Every integration is a new, unifying and creative synthesis.

Other Administrative Situations

A comment is in order regarding those possible situations where decision-making would not require or be benefitted by the group problem-solving approach. A consideration of some of these examples might set in yet clearer relief the context for the equity and unity principles. The types of problems confronting organizations are widely divergent, but the following criteria should shed some light on the question. The individual administrator would be the principal decision-maker for:

-Solutions to problems requiring specialized or technical knowledge

-Decisions regarding the acquisition of materials

-Most decisions regarding staff hiring and utilization

-Problems concerned with setting standards, determining costs, etc.

-Decisions regarding delineation of organizational structure

-Most decisions regarding work allocation

-Decisions involving broad organizational operations and activities

It is difficult to lay down clear-cut conditions to guide the administrator's choices, even one fully committed to the group problem-solving approach. What is required is an "adaptive" style of leadership, as discussed earlier. Similar to this is Chris Argyris' concept of "reality-centered" leadership, which says that "effective leaders are those who are capable of behaving in many different leadership styles, depending on the requirements of reality as they and others perceive it."[49]

IMPLEMENTING THE GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING APPROACH

Clarity of Objectives

All sorts of meetings are advertised as problem-solving conferences but whether or not real communication or exchange of ideas takes place depends upon the true purpose of the event and not its name. The effect of

---

[49]Chris Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1962), p. 81.

much human relations work has been to set up numerous "non-conferences," as Maier calls them. They create the appearance of participation without any real participation. In addition to "pseudo" problem-solving the other villain in group discussions is ambiguity. When a single conference contains contradictory purposes or procedures, the task of identifying and clarifying roles and functions becomes infinitely more complex. Furthermore, people resent time spent in conferences with ambiguous and divergent objectives. Leaders often feel that many different objectives can be carried out within a single meeting. This may be a serious error. Nothing interferes more with effective group action than holding a meeting with no clear purpose in front of the group and no clear image of the roles group members are to perform. Norman Maier summarizes the problem in this way:

> Business leaders at all levels conduct meetings for a variety of purposes: to transmit facts and information downward, to develop group ideas and resources for problem-solving, to coordinate management actions and plans, to educate and motivate others, to evaluate alternatives, and perhaps even to resolve conflict. The objectives of these upward, downward and lateral communications are often inherently contradictory, although it is usually supposed that several or all of them can be reached in a single meeting and through a single conference leadership process. This is the main source of error and difficulty in conference leadership. [50]

The first step toward improving group conferences would be to attempt to distinguish between one type of conference and another. Maier contrasts two essential types of group meetings--one whose purpose is to inform, the

---

[50]Maier and Hayes, Creative Management, p. 55.

other's whose purpose is to solve problems. In informational meetings the approval is the objective and communications are unilateral and downward. Maier calls them "tell and sell" sessions--the "tell" is that the leaders supply the answers and the "sell" refers to their approach to gain acceptance. Informational meetings are used to relay instructions, explain plans or decisions already formulated, and to motivate the group to follow through in some prescribed way on the data supplied by the leader. The subordinate is not "to obstruct downward communications with suggested innovations or changes but to integrate data supplied by leader and act on it loyally and obediently."[51] With this approach administrators get to the end results quickly--the lesson is covered or decision reached--but the price is a lack of inherent or built-in group motivation to act on the information presented. When staff members are motivated to carry out decisions from the "tell and sell" conference, it is because they identify strongly with organizational goals, because there is a feeling of trust and good will toward management based on previous experience, or because the extrinsic motivation of reward and punishment is added.

The problem-solving meeting represents a joint consultation and exchange of ideas in which the leader relies on the group to evolve solutions. The leader functions as a facilitator and chairman and not as lawgiver or prime center of intelligence or knowledge. Its purpose is to mold the ideas

---

[51]Ibid., p. 58.

and resources of both the leader and the group members into mutually defined and mutually derived decisions or plans of action. Group members are expected to be creative and offer responsible contribution of ideas and resources.

The leadership styles and underlying philosophy of the two types of group meetings are decidedly different as are the behavioral demands made upon the participants. The change in behavioral expectations should not be considered easy or automatic. Norman Maier describes the real challenge of the group problem-solving method:

> If the problems put to subordinate groups are meaningful and important to them, if the members are experienced and trained in democratic problem-solving processes, if there exists mutual interests, and if the leadership is skillful, it is reasonable to suppose that the desired objective can be attained. If, however, the leader is inept, if the group is suspicious of his motives, if group members do not share a unified and cooperative experience, or if the participation process is alien to the total organizational climate, it is reasonable to suppose that the desired objective cannot be achieved. [52]

Maier's final point is worth underscoring. If the meetings in an organization are traditionally of the "tell and sell" kind, staff members will behave on the basis of this past experience. They will be unwilling to take risks and there will be no effective participation. An adaptive leadership style, sometimes using the creative possibilities of problem-solving, can do no harm so long as the administrator is consistent. For ANISA administration, creating the proper organizational climate depends upon the administrators' wholehearted commitment to the ANISA philosophy of man and organization. The

---

[52] Ibid., p. 59.

philosophy includes the idea of changing things to improve effectiveness in accomplishing the purposes of the Model.

Role of the Group Leader

It was mentioned earlier that many group meetings create the appearance of participation without any real participation at all. Administrators open meetings with problems to be solved and ostensibly seek the group's advice in arriving at joint conclusions. They conceal their preconceived solutions and direct the deliberations their way. This is what Maier labels as a non-conference:

> . . . the leader stimulates consultation for the exclusive purpose of inducing cooperation, yet behind the scenery the organization is run as always. [53]

The truth is that sound human relations cannot be simulated. If an administrator announces certain objectives to a group, his ongoing behavior must reinforce those opening statements. He must sincerely see the group as a potential source of ideas and solutions and not as persons to be manipulated and won over to his way of thinking. There are times when an administrator will wish to inform or even to persuade but those intentions should not be cloaked in the guise of problem-solving.

Group problem-solving discussions call for some unique leadership abilities and skills. If the method tends to assure acceptance of a decision, the skill of the group chairman or discussion leader does a great deal to upgrade

---

[53] Ibid., p. 63.

the quality of a decision. Through a commitment to the ANISA theory of administration the ANISA administrators would have a genuine respect for and understanding of the dynamics of groups in human relationships; they would have confidence in others and show a willingness to delegate and share responsibility without avoiding accountability. Their philosophical orientation toward people and organization should provide them with a social sensitivity and a readiness to listen. The development of these capacities will be essential to drawing out the problem-solving potential of a group.

The term often applied to the group chairman is facilitator. What does this suggest behaviorally to the ANISA administrator? It means he should confine his activities to clarifying the problem, encouraging discussion, promoting communication, providing information that may be at his disposal and making appropriate summaries. The chairman's objective is to achieve full agreement on a decision that is the product of the interactions in the group discussion. A detailed treatment of the various behaviors and approaches a group leader could utilize to increase his effectiveness is not within the scope of this paper. We have tried to establish the efficacy of the method and the compatibility of this role with an ANISA theory of administration. Other authors have dealt thoroughly with the mechanics of the leadership role required for group problem-solving and some have developed managerial training programs with this in mind. [54] A few brief points in this regard

---

[54] In Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences Maier treats in a detailed fashion the step-by-step mechanics of conducting group problem-solving sessions.

are presented below to illustrate better the functions the administrator would perform.

The administrator who leads a group problem-solving session would start by mentioning the desired objectives and the ground rules or procedures for the problem-solving process. The latter would become less important if participants became accustomed to the method and as members gained experience. The chairman would then describe the problem to be resolved and avoid stating any solution. He may suggest a wide range of alternatives but this could confine the group to a limited set of possibilities. One caution is that the administrator should not feel compelled to inject his ideas right away. Group participants will try to divine his intentions--does he want criticism or support--and this will bog down the process. A prior decision may have been made by the administrator as to the suitability of the free or developmental mode of discussion--the free being an open, unrestricted style and the developmental being more structured with the process broken down into steps or stages. This choice can be made by deciding on the kinds of problems that profit from or can be hindered by structuring the discussion and being sensitive to a group's reaction to structuring. The leader's skill is seen not only in his ability to select a problem but in his ability to break the problem into logical parts and to introduce known facts without suggesting a solution. Group problem-solving necessitates the leader using some controls--not to dominate but to upgrade the discussion. For example, he will

have to keep the group from constant sidetracking and will have to draw out minority opinion. There are controls he must exercise on himself, too. If the discussion leader, very likely the administrator, reacts to negative points of view with defensive or punitive rebuttals, the positions may become polarized and agreement impossible to reach. He must react acceptantly to diverse points of view and allow the group consultation to show which ideas stand up. Related to this is the point that the administrator needs to refrain from enthusiastically endorsing or emotionally vetoing a view before the ideas are aired and the group can evaluate them.

A final comment should be directed to participating subordinates. They must realize that an executive can only share authority and responsibility with his group to the limits of his own autonomy. For example, there will be decisions made above the head of an ANISA master teacher--decisions over which he may have little control. These could be at the state level or even in a local community. In such a case, if a higher level says that something has to be done, a leader is not in a position to open the decision to group consultation. The group can consult, however, on <u>how</u> it should be done, or if an appeal is appropriate, on the nature of the appeal.

<u>The Mechanics of the Process</u>

We have indicated that Norman Maier has conducted probably more extensive empirical studies on group problem-solving in administration than any other researcher in organizational behavior. His conclusions, drawn from

observation, interviews, and questionnaires, support the philosophy and theory set forth in this paper. His careful analysis and insight make his work a kind of handbook for effective group problem-solving. It is not our objective to duplicate this. It seems worthwhile, however, to include a small portion of his analysis of the first stage of the participatory problem-solving process--"Presenting the Problem for Group Discussion"--to show how systematically he treats the whole method. Maier lays down six guiding principles for this first step of the process.

1. The problem should be stated, to the extent possible, in situational terms rather than behavioral terms. (This will avoid casting blame on individuals and having the leader separate himself from the rest of the group.)

2. A problem statement should encourage freedom of thought. No solution should be implied.

3. A mutual interest should be apparent in the statement of the problem.

4. Only one objective should be clearly specified.

5. The statement of the problem should be brief.

6. Essential information should forthwith be shared. Decision quality is related to the amount of relevant information available on the question. [55]

An example will serve to illustrate the kind of skill needed by an administrator in just approaching this first step of the problem-solving process--stating the problem. He asks--"How can I, without causing resentment,

---

[55]Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, p. 75. See the entire chapter for fuller coverage of the methods.

transfer a staff member who is popular with the group but seems to disrupt the work of others?" Here the executive has included a solution--transfer--in his statement of the problem. Some leaders put up a problem that, in fact, has only two choices--yes or no. This does not provide the proper context for creative group interactions.

A second example will illustrate another aspect of "presenting the problem for discussion." Locating the problem requires some ability, too. Suppose an ANISA school has a need for more creative talent and has the problem of how to increase it. This appears to be a definite and clear-cut problem and one with which members of administration would be concerned. But, in reality, there might be a number of problem locations:

- -How to do a better job of recruiting from the university
- -How to attract talent from other organizations
- -How to keep our best talent from leaving
- -How to locate talent in other segments of the ANISA organization
- -How to increase the talents in our present force
- -How to divide up the tasks so as better to distribute work according to the talent now available. [56]

Before attempting to find solutions to the broad concern first mentioned, the administrator needs to pinpoint the problem. A group of subordinates may be most helpful in identifying where the real problem lies.

---

[56]Adapted from illustrations given in Maier, Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences, p. 49.

In addition to concrete assistance on formulating the problem, Maier presents material on the process of exchanging and developing ideas, screening and selecting solutions, and follow-up. He provides many thoughtful behavioral guides based on his observations. For example, he suggests that members should not persist in a point of view if it fails to be productive, that they should always look at the merit of an idea and not its source. He also analyzes the relative merits and application of free as opposed to developmental modes of discussion.

The Size of the Group

Size is a very important variable determining the nature of the forces operating within a group. The main concern of administration is how the size of the group affects its working efficiency. The first consequence of increased size, Bernard Bass pointed out, is a reduction in the "interaction potential" of the set of members. If there are too many to allow an appropriate degree of interaction, the group purpose suffers. However, if there are too few to provide ideas from a sufficiently wide array of viewpoints, the group purpose will also suffer.

Smallness increases the visibility of non-participants, thereby causing them to be active. As group size increases, the tendency is toward centralization of communication and low participators stop talking. [57] Smallness

---

[57] Laura Crowell, Discussion: Method of Democracy (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1963), p. 34.

provides for greater involvement and also increases a member's feeling of responsibility for the success of the group. In addition, individuals usually feel greater satisfaction from participation in small group discussions because they can have a greater amount of the group's time and it is easier to maintain informality.

The number of relationships within a group increases geometrically as the number of members increases arithmetically. This is an important consideration because to be sensitive and cooperative in group consultation a member must be alert to the presence and attitudes of each of the other members and to interactions between members. This awareness becomes difficult as more members are added.

The question then becomes what number of participants will best implement the discussion process. The ideal number clearly is one large enough to bring forth a sufficient variety of ideas and small enough to function efficiently on its specified task. The research on the size variable does not seem conclusive as to specific numbers, but it does indicate that the objective of the group conference is the determining factor. If a session has the purpose of study, "exploration," or of developing cooperation, the group size might range from ten to twenty-five members. There is less necessity that everyone assist so fully in producing the group thought-line. For problem-solving, which is the process emphasized in this dissertation, groups of five to nine seem to function most effectively. This smaller size makes

possible the frequent opportunities for participation, sensitivity to different points of view, close involvement in the group thinking, and dedication to group-wide agreement, which are essential to group problem-solving.

Other variables, however, can enter in which would cause the administration to depart from a so-called ideal size for group problem-solving. The group might have to be larger in order to include all those in certain positions necessary for the implementation of a decision. On the other hand, if time is short and a solution is needed immediately, the administration will likely favor a very small group. In an emergency the group format might have to be bypassed completely.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANISA ADMINISTRATION--STRUCTURES AND ROLES

INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have laid the philosophical and theoretical foundation for ANISA administration and have explored the chief operating principles consistent with that foundation and most vital to the functioning of its organization. This final chapter will briefly consider the structuring of the organizational roles and relationships necessary for the application of these principles and for the implementation of ANISA objectives.

The formulators of the ANISA Model have set forth the general staffing pattern required for the full achievement of the Model's educational goals. It consists of a highly differentiated staff capable of meeting the wide-ranging needs of each individual child. In this section the writer will discuss the means for integrating these staff members and for assuring the execution of organizational objectives. This means reviewing again briefly matters relating to leadership and management, authority, supervision, and decision-making, but from the point of view of specific organizational relationships in the ANISA Model.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The staffing pattern elaborated by the framers of the ANISA Model designates the master teacher as the key staff person. He guides the learning process by arranging environments and selecting diverse modes

of instruction and media appropriate to the child's developmental level. His broad expertise allows him to determine the instructional activities in the various curriculum areas and to coordinate the efforts of a core of specialists who are prepared to attend to particular needs of the child. This support staff includes: assistant teachers and aides; a diagnostician and evaluation specialist; curriculum and programming specialist; communication and media technologists; multi-arts specialists; a family-community-school liaison worker; learning disabilities specialists; health and medical specialists; and the program administrators.

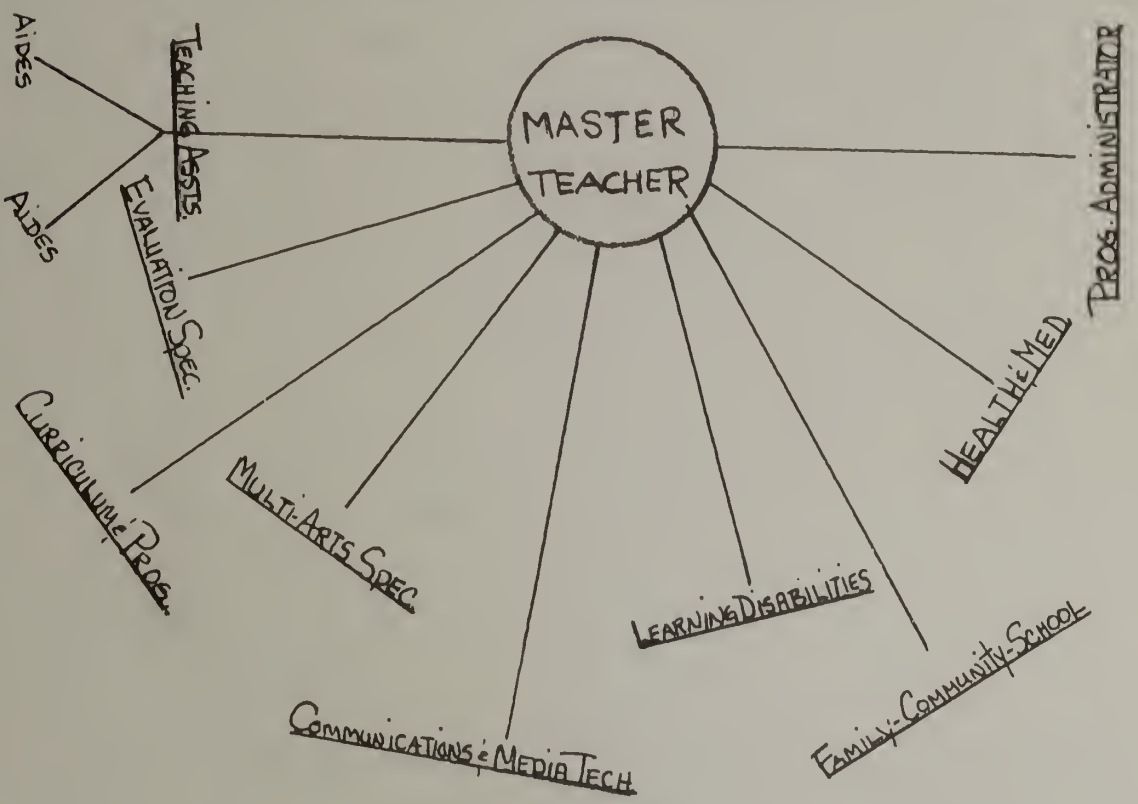


FIGURE 1 shows the master teacher as the coordinator of the program staff whose roles are differentiated to meet the manifold needs of the children.

The intention of the authors of this staffing pattern seems to have been to place the program administrator in the constellation of support staff, having the same collaborative relationship with the master teacher as the specialists and with no supervisory relationship over the master teacher. The program administrator's function is "to organize resources to achieve the educational goals with maximum efficiency."[1] This statement in the ANISA literature illustrates the vagueness with which this role is treated. What are the resources this program administrator is to be organizing? The master teacher is coordinating the human resources as indicated above. If the "program administrator" is to be ordering supplies, calling specialists, and briefing janitors, then this individual is an administrative assistant and does not carry responsibilities implied in the title "program administrator." This level of functioning for an "administrator" really contradicts the theory of administration as set forth in this dissertation and the responsibilities implicit in that exposition. Administration of the ANISA program, be it in one school or in a system, means guiding the release of the total organization's potential in pursuit of the educational goals. The concept of "maximum efficiency" falls far short of the real challenges of administration, and as Chester Barnard pointed out long ago, often does not produce "effectiveness," much less the processes stressed in this author's theory--adaptability and creative integration.

---

[1]Streets and Jordan, World Order, 7, No. 4, 305.

Moreover, placing a so-called program administrator in a constellation of staff members who consult with and support the activities of the master teachers, is inadequate to the demands of organizational life, particularly in any full-sized school. Even if a master teacher is overseeing the educational requirements of his area of responsibility, for example, the program for children from ages three to seven, this is not the total school. The development and progress of the school depend upon the coordination and supervision of the master teachers, the cultivation and maintenance of harmonious relations throughout the whole organization, the negotiation of the demands of the external environment, the establishment of policies and procedures, the review of fiscal matters, etc. These very large responsibilities cannot be accomplished by someone whose primary task is to "guide the child's interactions with his environment." The master teacher will not have the time, and very likely, not always the appropriate skills. [2] These responsibilities, which are vital to a competent, integrated organization, also cannot be accomplished without the exercise of authority.

Authority, as we have used it, is not to represent hierarchical domination, but the ability to require actions of others. The authority structure

---

[2]In the Head Start program of New York City several of the small 15-30 child centers were staffed at the top with a Teacher-Director. This was the Head Teacher who, with the assistance of clerical staff, was responsible not only for classroom supervision but also for coordinating the support services of a social worker, nutrition aide, parent coordinator, health assistant, psychological consultant, and other resource people. All of these services were seen as critical to the education of the total child. The result was that this Head Teacher rarely spent time in the classroom and, instead, was doing administration and planning almost exclusively.

suggested in Figure 1 is not really clear and appears to be inadequate to the purposes and tasks of administration. The relationship between the master teacher and program administrator would potentially create disorder and conflict. We have indicated earlier in this paper, however, that authority and the related principle of order would be greatly facilitated by a climate of creative consultation and collaboration. The management concerns of coordination, control, and accountability, basic to order in an organization, can be carried out through democratic structures as well, if not better, than through authoritarian ones.

Given the importance of group problem-solving in the creative advance of an organization and our awareness of the manifold skills and aptitudes needed to lead and manage a total organic system, such as an ANISA school, the concept of an administrative team is suggested as the chief planning and supervisory unit of the organization. This team would be composed of the program administrator, deputy administrator, and all the master teachers. The administrator would be chairman of the body and its chief executive. This administrative team would be responsible for the direction and implementation of the program. It would be a vehicle for consultation on matters of program policy, coordination, and special problems. In this setting the decisions and efforts of one master teacher would be integrated with those of other master teachers and with the needs and objectives of the entire school. As the supervisor of the learning process, the master teacher's views are

the most vital to the attainment of the educational objectives. In current practice, teachers are usually left out of this policy-making level.

The main authority of the school would reside with this administrative team. (See Figure 2) As the team's chief executive, much of the authority

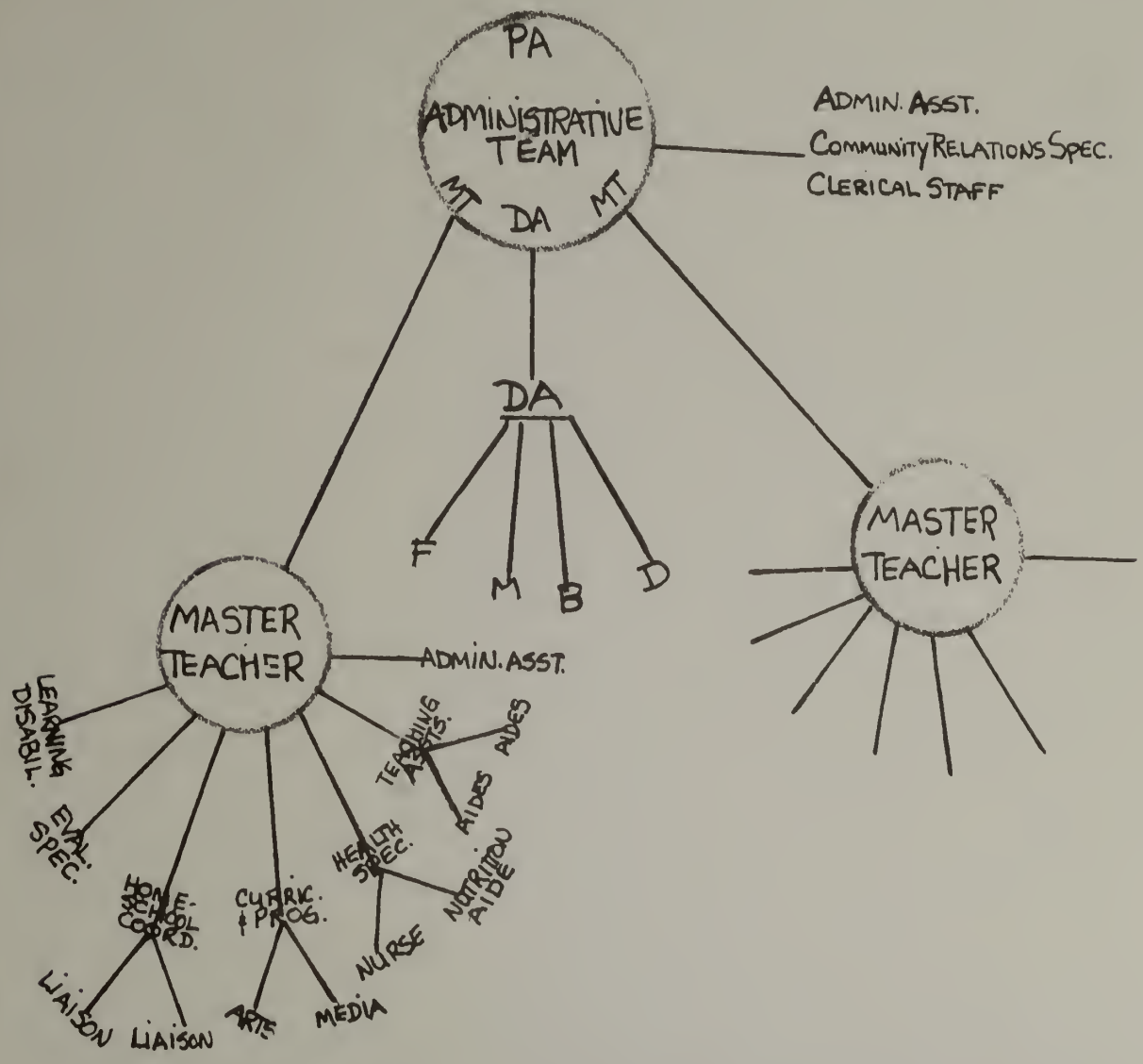


FIGURE 2 illustrates a recommended organizational structure for an ANISA school. The deputy administrator would supervise the departments of food services, maintenance, budget and accounting, and data collection and retrieval, which are represented by the letters F, M, B, and D. Both master teachers would coordinate a battery of diverse staff specialists, but the chart is only drawn out on the left.

would be channeled through the program administrator and, consequently, he would assume a managerial role. The master teachers as well as the program administrator would be required to display leadership in the ANISA sense. The managerial responsibilities, however, of the master teachers would be offset by the support of administrative assistants, thereby minimizing the master teacher's absence from the classroom.

This administrative team does not replace or displace the role of a parent advisory board, which could provide valuable ongoing input, or a local school board, which would be ultimately responsible for any school in its district. Its function is obviously different. The team is responsible for the overall operation of the school and for finding the creative possibilities in its interactions with staff, parents, and outside agencies which will keep the school moving progressively and productively into the future. It will necessitate a firm foundation of experience with the ANISA Model, in combination with a vision of the opportunities and requirements of the future--the capacities of immanence and transcendence fundamental to ANISA administration.

The entire school is accountable to the administrative team. Even the teachers and administrators that serve on the body are accountable to it. The program administrator's stance will inevitably be a supervisory one since he is the team's chief agent and, therefore, is cast into the executive role. His position as executive officer of the management team will put him

in the position of overseeing all the master teachers and senior specialists, and this is advantageous to the program in that his background and position will make him more detached from any particular classroom or discipline and enable him to retain a more comprehensive view.

The program administrator will have many spheres of independent action and also areas of authority delegated to him by the administrative team. Similarly, the master teachers will have primary authority and full latitude in the functioning of their educational segments of the program. Without this arrangement, the team would be meeting constantly and this would not be an effective use of their time nor of the organization's resources. However, the administrative team is the principal group problem-solving unit of the organization. This mechanism and method will integrate the major components of the organization; will broaden the knowledge base for decision-making on the part of all involved; will provide the group structure for the creative integrations needed in the administration; and will be a problem-solving model to other levels of the organization.

As chairman of the administrative team, the program administrator will act as group chairman or discussion leader. The effectiveness of the structure and the quality of the decision will depend a great deal on the skills he employs. This subject we explored in Chapter IV. It is, however, a role that he will not exercise alone. The group problem-solving approach is the integrating method of administration to be applied throughout the

organization, one which everyone will be responsible for learning. The health of the organization depends upon this.

INTERLOCKING LEVELS OF PROBLEM-SOLVING

In order to incorporate group problem-solving into the framework of the organization and to create a collaborative climate, it is necessary not only to establish a problem-solving unit at the highest functional level but through interlocking relationships to have these conferences multiplied until all levels and staff members are included. Interlocking circles of participation will give everyone an opportunity to participate in solving some problems, and, in particular, those that concern them the most and those about which they know the most.

Opportunities for small group discussions rather than just large group meetings in an organization will produce greater satisfaction, as we have discussed. The "face-to-face" influence on decisions allows for much more participation and influence than just reviewing or voting on an idea, which is the pattern of most large organizational meetings. When alternatives are supplied, the participants merely express a preference for one or another, but in face-to-face discussions, the participants can create new alternatives and then find ways to integrate differences.

Ultimately, the question is whether the pattern of small group conferences is a practical approach to the operation of a large organization.

Any business, school, or agency should have sufficient unity of purpose to locate problems of mutual interest. Figure 3 illustrates an ANISA organizational pattern in which the concept of problem-solving becomes part of the school's operation.

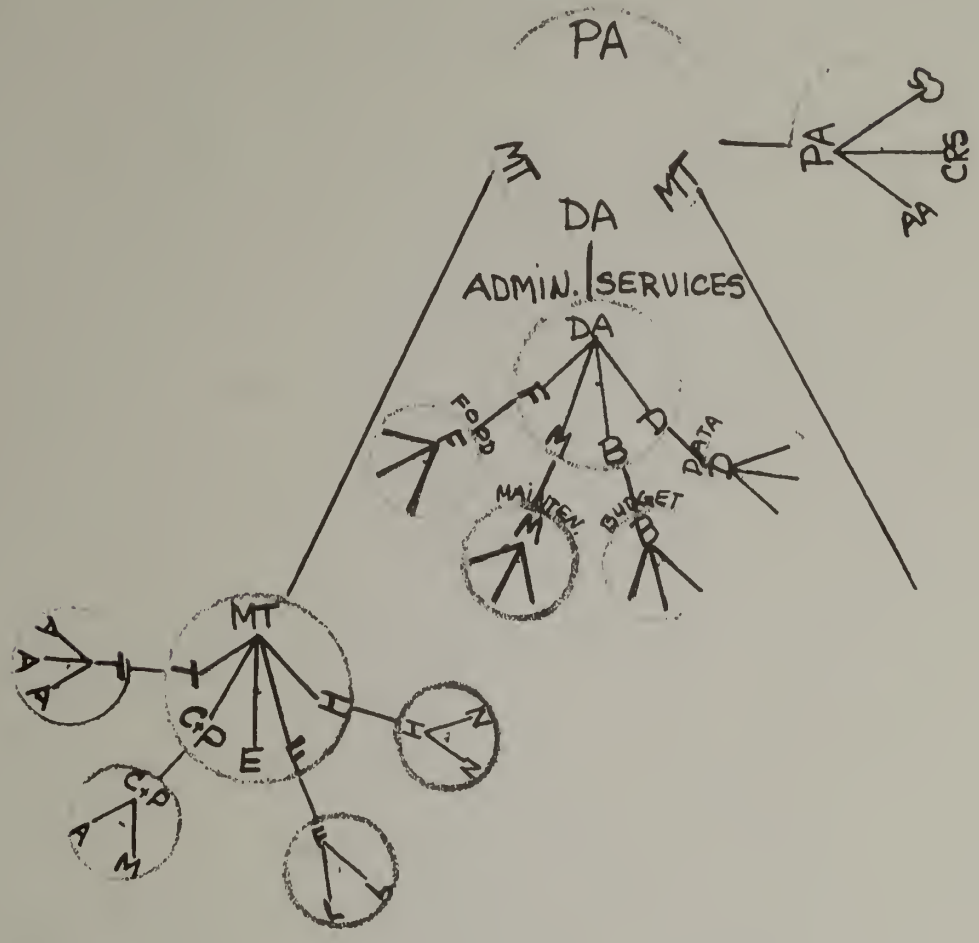
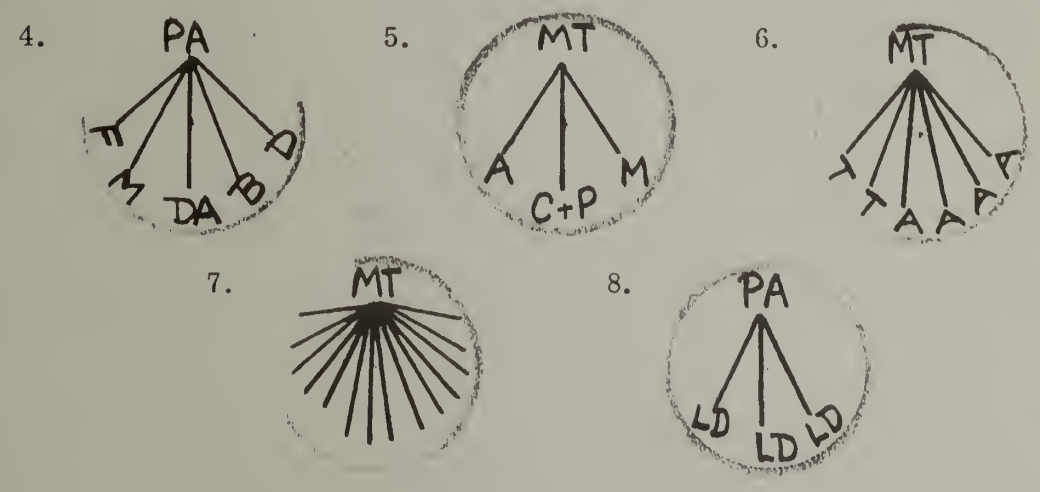


FIGURE 3. This organizational diagram shows the small groups that could meet together in the ANISA organization for planning and decision-making. Each large circle represents a face-to-face problem-solving unit. A member can serve as a participant at one level and act as group chairman at the next level below. The diagram represents a blend of structure and function. See Figures 1 and 2 for an explanation of the letters used.

This structure allows many members of the organization to participate in group problem-solving discussions and also to lead them. The decisions reached in one group conference--say of the administrative team--would specify the actions involving the group as a whole and leave to the individual master teachers those aspects of the decision that relate to his specific units and the next problem-solving level. This interlocking structure of discussion units would effectively handle communications upward, downward, and laterally. In addition, with the advantage of group discussion and communications, the reasons for the decisions and the alternatives that were considered or rejected would be common knowledge.

According to Figure 3, the master teacher would understand decisions reached at the level of the administrative team and communicate them to the functional units he consults with. Group discussion at this level could take the form of raising objections to the decision being communicated (which would be reported back) or finding the best way of implementing the decision. Starting from the decision made at the level of the administrative team, the master teacher will separate those matters that call for his independent judgment and action and those that would benefit from group consultation with his subordinates. The latter approach might be employed for formulation of group goals and standards, utilization of school facilities, evaluation of students, consideration of new methods or materials, interpersonal relations, questions of fair treatment, and housekeeping matters.

Figure 3 represents only a general organizational pattern for problem-solving and should not give the impression that all group consultation takes place in a hierarchy of three levels. Cross-pollinization will result from the formation of many other group problem-solving units of different combinations which are necessary to the solving of a particular task. Because of the potential it holds out for creative interactions, which can develop an organization and fulfill individuals, ANISA administration has group problem-solving as its central feature. This means it is part of a way of life. There will be times when the program administrator might meet with his deputy and all the staff department heads about the federal school lunch program; when the master teacher will meet with all his educational support staff at all levels about the week's schedule; when the program administrator might meet with all the learning disabilities specialists to formulate a proposal for state aid.



FIGURES 4-8. POTENTIAL PROBLEM-SOLVING UNITS. Figure 4 represents a conference of the program administrator, his deputy and all the administrative services department heads. Figure 5 shows the

master teacher meeting with a core of his program staff--the multi-arts specialist (A), the curriculum and programming specialist (C+P), the media technologist (M). Figure 6 diagrams the problem-solving meeting of the master teacher with his teaching staff: the assistants (T) and aides (A). Figure 7 represents a conference made up of the master teacher and his entire educational staff--approximately fifteen people. Figure 8 shows the program administrator meeting with the learning disabilities specialists (LD).

These other possible groups show how the problem-solving meeting can be the basis of a functional, collaborative structure throughout an organization. The practice of face-to-face conferences reduces distance in communication, which builds cohesion in the organization. But even more important than meeting "face-to-face" with your supervisor is the purpose for which you have come together: to solve problems. It is the participation--the interweaving of ideas and interests--that makes the face-to-face meetings meaningful. Through problem-solving discussions superior-subordinate relationships take on new meanings, and communication, decision-making and responsibility become integrated.

PARALLELS BETWEEN THE ROLES OF THE ANISA ADMINISTRATOR AND THE ANISA TEACHER

The discussion in this dissertation of the functions of administration in an ANISA setting has brought to light the many capacities needed for carrying them out effectively. ANISA administrators have the responsibility of drawing out the potentialities of their staff members and, in so doing, releasing the

collective potential of the organization. This process needs to be grounded in a commonly held purpose and directed toward clearly articulated goals and task requirements.

In many ways the functions of the ANISA administrator are analogous to those of ANISA teachers. Neither are authoritarian "dispensors"--be it of directives or of information. Both guide the interactions of those with whom they are involved in order to foster competence and understanding. The parallels in these roles have appeared in various parts of this paper, but it serves this analysis to draw some of these points together.

Both administrator and teacher need an understanding of human nature and a thorough grasp of human development. They must know the capabilities of those they are relating to and seek opportunities or arrange environments for them so that they can express their talents and individuality. An ANISA teacher ascertains the developmental level of a child so he can prescribe the experience most appropriate to the child's learning pace and potential. The ANISA administrator must follow the same principle in the delegation of work and responsibilities to subordinates. Just as in the learning process regular feedback is needed from the teacher to the child so it is expected from the administrator to the staff member in order to support correct action patterns. In the process of drawing out the potentialities of human beings, both administrator and teacher recognize the necessity of working with people as individuals not types. Only when something about the motivations and capabilities

that make a person unique is understood, can the administrator or teacher exert influence which will be more than skin-deep.

Managing a learning process is what ANISA teachers and administrators are doing at their respective levels, and many other skills come into play for this. These might include the importance of the "teacher" knowing the subject he is teaching; starting with what an individual knows and leading to the unknown; encouraging questions and discussion; demonstrating by doing; being sensitive to the emotions involved at every stage, and so forth. However, one aspect of this process which merits particular note because it appears to be a force key to learning is the power of example. As Halsey expressed in his study of a good supervisor: ". . . the learner is much more likely to imitate the leader's example than to follow his precept."[3]

The principle of "modeling" is fundamental to the learning of certain behaviors by children and in many cases by adults as well. A child tends to learn concern for others, cooperation, courtesy, and orderliness when he sees it demonstrated by those who are teaching him. Likewise, staff members tend toward punctuality, reliability, consideration, active listening, etc., when they are practiced by their supervisor. Ultimately, of course, the principle of modeling alone cannot achieve what ANISA education or ANISA administration seeks to achieve. Because their purpose is to release the potentialities of human beings, and the imitation of others has inherent

---

[3]George D. Halsey, Supervising People (New York: Harper and Row, 1946), p. 108.

limitations. Other types of creative interactions and responses, which encourage free expression and independent action, are necessary in the dynamics of that "release."

Finally, the ANISA teacher and ANISA administrator need to be able coordinators. They both must view totalities--the total child or the total system--and must orchestrate diverse human and material resources to facilitate the development of learning competence. In addition to seeing things as totalities, they see them as wholes in process, constantly changing, evolving, and emerging. With this perspective, both the ANISA teacher and administrator continually strive to bring out the creative possibilities of every interaction and situation.

PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

The study of the principles and structures suitable to the administration of the ANISA Model does not end with this conceptualization. The projection of the ideal, however, is a necessary first step in the dynamics of change.

Future efforts should concentrate on what has to be done to organize and develop systems in the direction of this administrative model. It will require the utilization of diagnostic instruments to determine the present state of schools in which the ANISA Model is being implemented, coupled with a methodology which will effect progress toward the realization of this ideal. The field of organizational behavior has already generated a wide range of

diagnostic and training techniques which will facilitate the translation of this theory of administration into practice. Vroom and Yetton's decision-making model, which was discussed in Chapter IV, is a good example of this.

It is hoped, though, that the formulation of this administrative model will influence the development of an ANISA organization in much the same way that a self-ideal, as Whitehead expressed it, acts as a lure to an individual's development. The subjective aim conditions the "becoming."

APPENDIX

This section includes the complete responses to the questionnaires utilized by Norman Maier in his experiment with three group conferences. (See Chapter IV, pp.

The Problem-Solving Conference

1. What do you think the conference leader was trying to do in this meeting?

   6 He really wanted the group's help, ideas, and suggestions in solving a problem.

   0 He simply wanted to explain a decision, already made by management.

   0 He seemed to have his mind made up, but tried to manipulate the group into thinking his ideas were ours.

2. How effectively do you feel this group functioned as a group?

   0 Everybody was just out for himself; little unity or cooperation.

   5 We worked effectively as a cooperative team.

   1 Group members tried to work together, but some were uncooperative.

3. How much influence do you feel you had personally on the final decision?

   1 None; my needs and interests weren't even recognized.

   3 Some; but not as much as others in the group.

   2 A great deal; all the influence I felt I wanted to have.

4. How much do you feel the group as a whole contributed to the final decision?

   0 None; the decision was just the conference leader's.

   1 Some; a few ideas were ours, but most were the leader's.

   5 A great deal; the decision was actually a group decision.

5. Based on what you saw of this conference leader's behavior, how would you expect him to be as a supervisor?

   0 Probably autocratic; inclined to be arbitrary and unfair, not much concerned with the needs of the work group.

   0 Probably manipulative; pretends to be democratic while imposing his own wishes on the group. Difficult to really determine what he's doing at any one time.

   6 Probably democratic; inclined to be fair, considerate, and interested in the needs and interests of his work group.

6. How much do you feel members of this group now want to go ahead with the final decision?

   _0_ Most don't care much one way or the other.

   _0_ They will be reluctant; will probably look for ways of being excused.

   _6_ They will be very interested in going ahead with the project.

7. How did you interpret the behavior of other group members in this meeting?

   _0_ Most were concerned only with their own selfish interests.

   _5_ Most were concerned with broad needs and interests of the group.

   _1_ The group was divided between those who were selfish and those who were cooperative and concerned about the whole picture.

8. Do you think the final decision reached is actually in the company's best interests?

   _6_ It is the best way I can think of at this time.

   _0_ It is a pretty good decision, but I feel there are better ways.

   _0_ It is a very poor decision; too costly and inappropriate.

9. How effective was upward communication in this meeting, from the group to the conference leader?

   _5_ Group members told the leader honestly and freely about their ideas and feelings.

   _0_ Group members were not really free to express any ideas or real feelings here.

   _1_ Group members voiced some ideas and opinions, but kept some important ones to themselves.

The Pseudo-Democratic Conference

1. What do you think the conference leader was trying to do in this meeting?

   _1_ He really wanted the group's help, ideas, and suggestions in solving a problem.

   _0_ He simply wanted to explain a decision already made by management.

   _5_ He seemed to have his mind made up but tried to manipulate the group into thinking his ideas were ours.

2. How effectively do you feel this group functioned as a group?

   _1_ Everybody was just out for himself; little unity or cooperation.

4 We worked effectively as a cooperative team.

1 Group members tried to work together, but some were uncooperative.

3. How much influence do you feel you had personally on the final decision?

0 None; my needs and interests weren't even recognized.

5 Some; but not as much as others in the group.

1 A great deal; all the influence I felt I wanted to have.

4. How much do you feel the group as a whole contributed to the final decision?

0 None; the decision was just the conference leader's.

4 Some; a few ideas were ours, but most were the leader's.

2 A great deal; the decision was actually a group decision.

5. Based on what you just saw of this conference leader's behavior, how would you expect him to be as a supervisor?

0 Probably autocratic; inclined to be arbitrary and unfair, not much concerned with the needs of the work group.

4 Probably manipulative; pretends to be democratic while imposing his own wishes on the group. Difficult to really determine what he is doing at any one time.

2 Probably democratic; inclined to be fair, considerate, and interested in the needs and interests of his work group.

6. How much do you feel members of this group now want to go ahead with the final decision?

3 Most don't care much one way or the other.

0 They will be reluctant; will probably look for ways of being excused.

3 They will be very interested in going ahead with the project.

7. How did you interpret the behavior of other group members in this meeting?

1 Most were concerned only with their own selfish interests.

5 Most were concerned with broad needs and interests of the group.

0 The group was divided between those who were selfish and those who were cooperative and concerned about the whole picture.

8. Do you think the final decision reached is actually in the company's best interests?

6 It is the best way I can think of at this time.

__0__ It is a pretty good decision, but I feel there are better ways.

__0__ It is a very poor decision; too costly and inappropriate.

9. How effective was upward communication in this meeting, from the group to the conference leader?

__5__ Group members told the leader honestly and freely about their ideas and feelings.

__1__ Group members were not really free to express any ideas or real feelings here.

__0__ Group members voiced some ideas and opinions, but kept some important ones to themselves.

The Informational Conference

1. What do you think the conference was trying to do in this meeting?

__2__ He really wanted the group's help, ideas, and suggestions in solving a problem.

__2__ He simply wanted to explain a decision already made by management.

__2__ He seemed to have his mind made up, but tried to manipulate the group into thinking his ideas were ours.

2. How effectively do you feel this group functioned as a group?

__3__ Everybody was just out for himself; little unity or cooperation.

__1__ We worked effectively as a cooperative team.

__2__ Group members tried to work together, but some were uncooperative.

3. How much influence do you feel you had personally on the final decision?

__4__ None; my needs and interests weren't even recognized.

__1__ Some; but not as much as others in the group.

__1__ A great deal; all the influence I felt I wanted to have.

4. How much do you feel the group as a whole contributed to the final decision?

__4__ None; the decision was just the conference leader's.

__2__ Some; a few ideas were ours, but most were the leaders's.

__0__ A great deal; the decision was actually a group decision.

5. Based on what you just saw of this conference leader's behavior, how would you expect him to be as a supervisor?

_1_ Probably autocratic; inclined to be arbitrary and unfair, not much concerned with the needs of the work group.

_5_ Probably manipulative; pretends to be democratic while imposing his own wishes on the group. Difficult to really determine what he's doing at any one time.

_0_ Probably democratic; inclined to be fair, considerate, and interested in the needs and interests of his work group.

6. How much do you feel members of this group now want to go ahead with the final decision?

_4_ Most don't care much one way or the other.

_2_ They will be reluctant; will probably look for ways of being excused.

_0_ They will be very interested in going ahead with the project.

7. How did you interpret the behavior of other group members in this meeting?

_0_ Most were concerned only with their own selfish interests.

_3_ Most were concerned with broad needs and interests of the group.

_3_ The group was divided between those who were selfish and those who were cooperative and concerned about the whole picture.

8. Do you think the final decision reached is actually in the company's best interests?

_2_ It is the best way I can think of at this time.

_3_ It is a pretty good decision, but I feel there are better ways.

_1_ It is a very poor decision; too costly and inappropriate.

9. How effective was upward communication in this meeting, from the group to the conference leader?

_0_ Group members told the leader honestly and freely about their ideas and feelings.

_2_ Group members were not really free to express any ideas or real feelings here.

_4_ Group members voiced some ideas and opinions, but kept some important ones to themselves.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Anderson, Richard C. Management Strategies. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965.

Argyris, Chris. Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1962.

Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938.

Bass, Bernard M. Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior. New York: Harper and Row, 1960, Chapter 17.

Beal, George M., Bolen, Joe M. and Radabaugh, J. Neil. Leadership and Dynamic Group Action. Iowa State Press, 1962.

Bennis, Warren G. Changing Organizations: Essays on the Development and Evolution of Human Organization. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

Bennis, Warren G., Schein, Edgar H., and McGregor, Caroline (eds.). Leadership and Motivation: Essays of Douglas McGregor. Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, 1966.

Crowell, Laura. Discussion: Method of Democracy. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1963.

Fayol, Henri. General and Industrial Administration. trans. by Constance Storrs. London: Sir Isaac Pitman's and Sons, 1949.

Follett, Mary Parker. Creative Experience. London:Longmans, Green and Co., 1924.

_____. The New State: Group Organization and the Solution of Popular Government. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1918.

Gantt, H. L. Work, Wages, and Profits. New York: Engineering Magazine Co., 1911.

Given, William B. Jr. How to Manage People. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1964.

Gordon, Thomas. Group-Centered Leadership. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955.

Haire, M. Psychology in Management. 2nd. edition. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.

Halsey, George D. Supervising People. New York: Harper & Row, 1946.

Harnack R. Victor and Fest, Thorrel B. Group Discussion, Theory and Technique. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1964.

Hersey, Paul and Blanchard, Kenneth H. Management of Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1972.

Hill, Walter A. and Egan, Douglas M. Readings in Organization Theory: A Behavioral Approach. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1966.

Hill, Winfred F. Learning: A Survey of Psychological Interpretations. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1963.

Howells, G. W. Executive Aspects of Man Management. London: Pitman Publishing, 1972.

Hunt, J. McVicker. Intelligence and Experience. New York: Ronald Press, 1961.

Jahoda, Marie. Current Concepts of Positive Mental Health. New York: Basic Books, 1958.

Keltner, John W. Group Discussion Processes. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1957.

Lewin, Kurt. Resolving Social Conflicts: Selected Papers on Group Dynamics (1935-1946). ed. by Gertrud Weiss. New York: Harper & Row, 1948.

Mc Gregor, Douglas. The Human Side of Enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

Maier, Norman R. F. Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.

Maier, Norman R. F. and Hayes, John J. Creative Management. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1962.

Mayo, Elton. The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization. New York: MacMillan Co., 1033.

Munsterberg, Hugo. Psychology and Industrial Efficiency. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913.

Phillips, J. Donald. The Art of Delegation. Hillsdale, Michigan: Hillsdale College Press, 1964.

Porter, Donald E. and Applewhite, Philip B. eds. Studies in Organizational Behavior and Management. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook., 1964.

Schein, Edgar H. Organizational Psychology. 2nd edition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1970.

Tannenbaum, Robert, Irving R. Weschler, and Fred Massarik. Leadership and Organization: A Behavioral Science Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Taylor, Frederick W. The Principles of Scientific Management. New York: Harper & Row, 1911.

Thelen, H. A. Dynamics of Groups at Work. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Thibaut,John W. and Kelley, Harold H. The Social Psychology of Groups. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959.

Urwick, Lyndall. The Elements of Administration. New York: Harper & Row, 1943.

Urwick, L. and Metcalf, Henry (eds.). Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett. New York: Harper & Bros. 1940.

Vroom, Victor H. and Yetton, Philip W. Leadership and Decision-Making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973.

Weber, C. A. and Weber, Mary E. Fundamentals of Educational Leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.

Whitehead, Alfred North. Process and Reality: An Essay in Cosmology. New York: MacMillan & Co., 1969.

Whyte, William F. Money and Motivation. New York: Harper and Row, 1955.

Wren, Daniel A. The Evolution of Management Thought. New York: Ronald Press, 1972.

Yuill, Bruce F. An Outline of Organisational Principles for Management. Sydney: West Publishing Corp., 1966.

Articles

Benne, Kenneth, Bennis, Warren G., and Chin, Robert. "Planned Change in America," in The Planning of Change: Readings in theApplied Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1961, pp. 28-32.

Benne, Kenneth and Chin, Robert. "General Strategies for Effecting Change in Human Systems." in The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1961, pp. 32-60.

Bennett, E. B. "Discussion, Decision, Commitment and Consensus in 'Group Decision'." Human Relations, 8(1955), 251-273.

Blake, Robert R. and Mouton, Jane Srygley. "Reactions to Intergroup Competition under Win-Lose Conditions." Paper delivered to the Seventh International Meeting of the Institute of Management Sciences, New York, October, 1960.

Burns, Tom. "The Directions of Activity and Communication in a Departmental Executive Group." Human Relations, VII, No. 1(July, 1954), 73-97.

Callahan, Raymond E. and Button, H. Warren. "Historical Change of the Role of the Man in the Organization, 1865-1950," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. pp. 73-94.

Campbell, Roald F. "Implications for the Practice of Administration. Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 279-302.

Carlson, Richard O. "Informal Organization and Social Distance: A Paradox of Purposive Organization." Educational Administration, 44, No. 6 (November, 1958), 366-374.

Coch, L. and French, J. R. P., Jr. "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, 1 (1948), 512-532.

Dale, Ernest. "Executives Who Can't Manage." Atlantic Monthly, 210, No. 1 (July, 1962), 58-62.

Dill, William R. "Decision-Making." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 199-222.

Getzels, J. W. and E. G. Guba. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process." The School Review, LXV, No. 4 (Winter, 1957), 423-441.

Glanzer, Murray and Glazer, Robert. "Techniques for the Study of Group Structure and Behavior: Empirical Studies of the Effects of Structure in Small Groups." Psychological Bulletin, 58, No. 1 (January, 1961), 1-27.

Griffiths, Daniel E. "The Nature and Meaning of Theory." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 95-118.

Gross, Bertram M. "The Scientific Approach to Administration." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 33-72.

Hemphill, John K. "Leadership Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputation of College Departments." The Journal of Educational Psychology, 46, No. 7 (November, 1955), 385-401.

_____. "Personal Variables and Administrative Styles," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 178-198.

Henry, William E. "The Business Executive: The Psychodynamics of a Social Role." The American Journal of Sociology, 54, No. 4 (January, 1949), 286-291.

Hoffman, L. R. and Maier, N. R. F. "The Use of Group Decision to Resolve a Problem of Fairness." Personnel Psychology, 12 (1959), 545-559.

Iannaccone, Laurence. "An Approach to the Informal Organization of the School." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 223-242.

Jordan, Daniel C. and Streets, Donald T. "The ANISA Model: A New Basis for Educational Planning." Young Children, XXVIII, No. 5 (June, 1973), 289-307.

_____. "The ANISA Model: A New Educational System for the Development of Human Potential." World Order, 6, No. 3 (Spring, 1972), 21-30.

Kalinowski, Michael F. and Jordan, Daniel C. "Being and Becoming." World Order, 7, No. 4 (Summer, 1973), 17-26.

Katz, Robert. "Skills of an Effective Administrator." Harvard Business Review, 33 (January-February, 1955), 33-43.

Koontz, Harold. "The Management Theory Jungle." Journal of the Academy of Management, 4, No. 3 (December, 1961), 174-188.

Leavitt, Harold J. "Unhuman Organizations." Harvard Business Review, 40 No. 4 (July-August, 1962), 90-98.

Lewin, Kurt. "Group Decision and Social Change" in Readings in Social Psychology, T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Hartley (eds.), New York: Henry Holt, 1947, pp. 330-344.

Lipham, James M. "Leadership and Administration." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 119-141.

Lipham, James M. "Personal Variables of Effective Administrators." Administrator's Notebook, IX, No. 1 (September, 1960).

Litchfield, Edward H. "Notes on a General Theory of Administration." Administrative Science Quarterly, I (June, 1956-57), 3-29.

Londale, Richard C. "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol. 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 142-177.

Maier, Norman R. F. "The Quality of Group Decision as Influenced by the Discussion Leader." Human Relations, 3 (1950), 155-174.

Maier, N. R. F. and Solem, A. R. "The Contribution of a Discussion Leader to the Quality of Group Thinking: the Effective Use of Minority Opinion." Human Relations, 5 (1952), 277-288.

Moore, Hollis A. Jr. "TheFerment in School Administration." Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Vol 63, Part II, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 11-32.

Moser, Robert P. "The Leadership Patterns of School Superintendents and School Principals." Administrator's Notebook, Bulletin of the Midwest Administration (September, 1957).

Moyer, Donald. "Leadership That Teachers Want."Administrator's Notebook, Bulletin of the Midwest Administration Center (March, 1955).

Mulder, M. "Communication Structure, Decision Structure and Group Performance." Sociometry, 23 (1960), 1-14.

Olmosk, Kurt E. "Seven Pure Strategies of Change." in The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, pp. 163-172.

Shepard, Raymond and Jordan, Daniel C. "The Philosophy of the ANISA Model." World Order, 7, No. 1 (Fall, 1972), 23-31.

Stogdill, Ralph M. "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature." The Journal of Psychology, 25 (1948), 35-71.

Streets, Donald T. and Jordan, Daniel C. "Guiding the Process of Becoming: The ANISA Theories of Curriculum and Teaching." World Order, 6, No. 3 (Spring, 1972), 29-40.

Thompson, James D. and McEwen, William J. "Organizational Goals and Environment: Goal-Setting as an Interaction Process." American Sociological Review, 23, No. 1 (February, 1958), 23-31.

Wilson, Woodrow. "The Study of Administration." Political Science Quarterly, II, No. 2 (June, 1887), 198-222.